The Education Digest

50 CENTS A COPY, $4 A YEAR - PUBLISHED AT ANN ARBOR, MICHIGAN

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Volume XVII April, 1952 Number 8

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Subscription price, $4.00 a year; 2 years, $7.00; 3 years, $10.00 (Foreign, $4.50 a year); single copies, 50c. Published monthly, September through May. Address The Education Digest, 330 South State St., Ann Arbor, Michigan.

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Entered as second-class matter November 4, 1935, at the post office at Ann Arbor, Michigan, under the Act of March 3, 1879. Printed in the United States of America. The annual index is included in the May issue. The contents of The Education Digest are listed in the *Education Index*. Advertising Sales Offices: Eastern—MacIntyre-Simpson & Woods, 101 Park Avenue, New York 17, N.Y. Lexington 2-8998. Mid-West—Prakken Publications, 53 West Jackson Blvd., Suite 447, Chicago, Ill.

THE EDUCATION DIGEST

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Volume XVII APRIL, 1952 Number 8

A Lone Voice for Freedom

The Dissenting Opinion of Mr. Justice Douglas

WILLIAM O. DOUGLAS

In the Supreme Court Case of Adler v. Board of Education

I HAVE not been able to accept the recent doctrine that a citizen can be forced to sacrifice his civil rights. I cannot for example find in our constitutional scheme the power of a state to place its employes in the category of second-class citizens by denying them freedom of thought and expression.

The Constitution guarantees freedom of thought and expression to everyone in our society. All are entitled to it; and none needs it more than the teacher.

The public school is in most respects the cradle of our democracy. The increasing role of the public school is seized upon by proponents of the type of legislation represented by New York's Feinberg Law as proof of the importance and need for keeping the school free of "subversive influences."

But that is to misconceive the effect of this type of legislation; indeed the impact of this kind of censorship on the public-school system illustrates the high purpose of the First Amendment in freeing speech and thought from censorship. *United Public Workers* v. *Mitchell,* 330 U.S. 75; *Garner* v. *Board of Public Works of Los Angeles,* 341 U.S. 7-6. 8—dissent. *Adler* v. *Board of Education.*

The present law proceeds on a principle repugnant to our society—guilt by association. A teacher is

EDITOR'S NOTE: The Supreme Court upheld by a 6-3 decision, announced on March 3, the constitutionality of New York state's Feinberg Law which prohibits employment in the public-school system of the state of any person who advocates overthrow of the federal or state government by force or violence or who is a member of any organization that holds such a doctrine. Membership in such an organization is prima-facie grounds for dismissal.

The New York Board of Regents is charged with the responsibility of establishing a list of subversive organizations and any teacher suspected of belonging to such an organization has a right to a hearing and a court review before dismissal.

Many observers feel that grave dangers to the civil rights of teachers are a certain outcome of this decision as other states follow the lead of New York in setting up similar legislation.

The dissenting opinion of Mr. Justice Douglas printed here was concurred in by Mr. Justice Black. Mr. Justice Frankfurter dissented on other grounds.

disqualified because of her membership in an organization found to be "subversive." The finding as to the "subversive" character of the organization is made in a proceeding to which the teacher is not a party and in which it is not clear that she may even be heard.

AN IRREBUTTABLE CHARGE

To be sure she may have a hearing when charges of disloyalty are leveled against her. But in that hearing the finding as to the "subversive" character of the organization apparently may not be reopened in order to allow her to show the truth of the matter. The irrebuttable charge that the organization is "subversive" therefore hangs as an ominous cloud over her own hearing.

The mere fact of membership in the organization raises a prima-facie case of her own guilt. She may, it is said, show her innocence. But innocence in this case turns on knowledge; and when the witch hunt is on, one who must rely on ignorance leans on a feeble reed.

The very threat of such a procedure is certain to raise havoc with academic freedom. Youthful indiscretions, mistaken causes, misguided enthusiasms—all long forgotten—become the ghosts of a harrowing present.

Any organization committed to a liberal cause, any group organized to revolt against an hysterical trend, any committee launched to sponsor an unpopular program becomes suspect. These are the organizations into which Communists infiltrate.

Their presence infects the whole, even though the project was not conceived in sin. A teacher caught in that mesh is almost certain to stand condemned. Fearing condemnations, she will tend to shrink from any association that stirs controversy. In that manner freedom of expression will be stifled.

But that is only part of it. Once a teacher's connection with a listed organization is shown, her views become subject to scrutiny to determine whether her membership in the organization is innocent or, if she was formerly a member, whether she has bona fide abandoned her membership.

The law inevitably turns the school system into a spying project. Regular loyalty reports on the teachers must be made out. The principals become detectives; the students, the parents, the community become informers. Ears are cocked for telltale signs of disloyalty.

PREJUDICES

The prejudices of the community come into play in searching out the disloyal. This is not the usual type of supervision which checks a teacher's competency; it is a system which searches for hidden meanings in a teacher's utterances.

What was the significance of the reference of the art teacher to socialism? Why was the history teacher so openly hostile to Franco Spain? Who heard overtones of revolution in the English teacher's discussion of *The Grapes of Wrath?* What was behind the praise of

Soviet progress in metallurgy in the chemistry class? Was it not "subversive" for the teacher to cast doubt on the wisdom of the venture in Korea?

What happens under this law is typical of what happens in a police state. Teachers are under constant surveillance; their pasts are combed for signs of disloyalty; their utterances are watched for clues to dangerous thoughts. A pall is cast over the classrooms.

DEADENING DOGMA

There can be no real academic freedom in that environment. Where suspicion fills the air and holds scholars in line for fear of their jobs, there can be no exercise of the free intellect.

Supineness and dogmatism take the place of inquiry. A "party line" —as dangerous as the "party line" of the Communists—lays hold. It is the "party line" of the orthodox view, of the conventional thought, of the accepted approach.

A problem can no longer be pursued with impunity to its edges. Fear stalks the classroom. The teacher is no longer a stimulant to adventurous thinking; she becomes instead a pipeline for safe and sound information.

A deadening dogma takes the place of free inquiry. Instruction tends to become sterile. Pursuit of knowledge is discouraged; discussion often leaves off where it should begin.

This, I think, is what happens when a censor looks over a teacher's shoulder. This system of spying and surveillance with its accompanying reports and trials cannot go hand in hand with academic freedom. It produces standardized thought, not the pursuit of truth. Yet it was the pursuit of truth which the First Amendment was designed to protect.

BOLD THINKING

A system which directly or inevitably has that effect is alien to our system and should be struck down. Its survival is a real threat to our way of life. We need be bold and adventuresome in our thinking to survive. A school system producing students trained as robots threatens to rob a generation of the versatility that has been perhaps our greatest distinction.

The framers knew the danger of dogmatism; they also knew the strength that comes when the mind is free; when ideas may be pursued wherever they lead. We forget these teachings of the First Amendment when we sustain this law.

Of course the school systems of the country need not become cells for Communist activities; and the classrooms need not become forums for propagandizing the Marxist creed. But the guilt of the teacher should turn on overt acts. So long as she is a law-abiding citizen, so long as her performance within the public-school system meets professional standards, her private life, her political philosophy, her social creed should not be the cause of reprisals against her. •

Needed—A Paragon of Virtues

The Challenge to the Superintendent

In The American School Superintendency

VOLUMES may be written about the superintendent and his job, and much can be done to improve his qualifications and status, but in the last analysis it is the superintendent's personality, judgment, and spirit which determine the difference between success and failure in the position. Everything which contributes to building these up will help him in his work and through him the schools and the community. Everything which serves to break them down will weaken his effectiveness.

Who is this superintendent? A statistical composite of the 3146 city and rural superintendents replying to the yearbook questionnaire pictures him as a married man 48 years of age, with 5.7 years of college preparation and 25.4 years of experience in school work, of which 10.4 were as superintendent. Only 6.8 percent of the superintendents were women. The superintendent owns his home, participates in a public retirement system, and serves under the terms of a written contract. He may receive an annual salary of less than $3000 or more than $30,000—but the median is $5679. Since 1930 this median has increased $2042, or approximately 56 percent.

The size of his staff and the number of his assistants depend, of course, on the size of the school system where he works. The average is three office employees and about two professional assistants. He gets along well with his board of education and respects the members as leaders in whom the community has both pride and confidence. He works hard and long, reporting an average of 57.8 hours a week at his duties. Of these working hours, he spends 49.5 hours per week on officially scheduled and office-related work, 4.7 hours per week at meetings, dinners, and other events where he is expected to be present, and 3.7 hours per week on out-of-town educational meetings and trips related to his professional duties, many of them including Sundays. He takes a vacation of about 12 days during the year.

In the last analysis, however, this nonexistent "average superintendent" is an individual. Individuals, being human, may react in many different ways to the storms of public pressure and controversy which often surround the position of superintendent. But it is the superintendent of great heart and cou-

Reported from The American School Superintendency, *the 30th Yearbook of the American Association of School Administrators, Washington, D.C. (1952 Edition), Chapter XVII, 435–44.*

rageous spirit, possessed of sound judgment and deep understanding, who will carry the profession and the schools forward. His dedication to his task and his sense of obligation to his community and nation will keep him at his post through many vicissitudes. His spirit and his devotion to education will be magnified many times through the teachers, principals, pupils, and citizens of his community. His world will be immeasurably enriched by his service and leadership.

To strengthen these men and women of great heart, these people who have the necessary personal qualifications for educational leadership and administration, many measures can be taken.

First and foremost comes the development of public awareness of the problems of the superintendent, a better understanding of the world in which they work and the place of education in that world. The schools and the superintendency cannot but reflect the problems of today's world. There is great need for leadership, and the people are turning with increasing interest and hope to the public schools to develop this leadership.

On the shoulders of the superintendent of schools falls the burden of leading the school system safely and wisely through this period of stress and strain. With a schoolboard selected by the people and trusted by them to set the policies and choose the superintendent, with teachers in the classroom cooperating to put into practice the highest ideals of American public education, the superintendent is the keystone to the arch, the middle link in the chain. Without his strength and without his purpose the whole system breaks down.

It is vital, therefore, that every effort be expended to make the superintendent's position more secure, his preparation and training more effective, and to attract and hold in the superintendency men and women with the highest personal qualifications. Many measures will help to do this. They can be grouped under four headings: (*a*) measures to improve the individuals who will serve or who are serving as superintendents; (*b*) measures to improve their conditions of work; (*c*) measures to strengthen the entire school system; and (*d*) measures to intensify, clarify, and unify the interest of the community in its schools. Through these steps, cooperation and understanding between the community, which is the ultimate authority, and the superintendent, who is its agent as well as leader, may be deepened.

RECRUITMENT

There should be an aggressive recruitment program in high schools and colleges, and within all school systems so that the profession of educational administration makes as vivid and forceful an appeal as those of medicine, law, engineering, and others. The new and widened opportunities for leadership and service should be spotlighted. The colleges must seek out students with

personal qualifications for service and leadership in this field and enlist them for life. These persons should be trained for the superintendency in the same spirit and with the same tenacity with which religious leaders are produced.

When all suitable measures toward attainment of these ends are stepped up, intensified, and refined —recruitment, preservice and inservice preparation—we shall have many more administrators who are able to cope successfully with their complex responsibilities.

EXPECTING THE IMPOSSIBLE

Far too often the impossible is expected of the superintendent and such difficult conditions of work are imposed that no human being could function successfully under them. It is here that the concept of the superintendency as a constellation of tasks and as a team rather than an individual is of great value. Recognition of the multiplicity of tasks involved and the imperative necessity for a suitable organization of persons to handle them efficiently is the first step to provide conditions for success.

In addition, every superintendent should have a definite contract and should have his duties, authority, and responsibility clearly defined. Individual members of boards of education should refrain from directing choice of personnel, awarding of contracts, or influencing purchasing; they should center attention primarily on matters of policy. They should bend every effort to get a good superintendent and a corps of able professional assistants. Ample clerical assistance should be provided, and the entire staff should function as a team.

Salary should be commensurate with the dignity and importance of the position, and should compensate for the uncertainties and difficulties involved. The superintendent's contribution to the educational progress of the community must be recognized not only in terms of salary, but in the matters of pension, hours of work, vacations, travel allowances, and so on, or we shall fail to attract and hold the men and women whom we need so badly in this place of high trust.

Not only should the important role of the superintendent be recognized, but the public-school system itself must at the same time be strengthened. Public education and the superintendency can move forward only as a unit. The fiscal inflexibilities which in some localities prevent the schools from receiving adequate support; the administrative limitations and the lack of definition of responsibilities, qualifications, and tenure which require legislative action—all should be remedied. The financial base of support for the public schools should be spread equitably over all the resources of the community, not just among the property-owners or any other one group. School-district boundaries should be wide enough to maintain a well balanced school program without too great a tax burden on the local residents.

County, state, and national leadership, service, and financial assistance should be extended.

COMMUNITY UNDERSTANDING

Finally, and perhaps most important of all, there must be a deepened understanding and an aroused awareness on the part of all the citizens of every community of the critical need for leadership and unity in educational policy. Heroic efforts to bring warring factions together and to resolve questions of educational philosophy and emphasis must be made if as a nation we are to endure. These efforts must be made by the community—by the groups themselves—in a spirit of mutual respect and acceptance. Name-calling, witch-hunting, and wild-goose chases of all kinds should give way to a determination to unite behind an educational program which will bring out the best in every child who enters the school door, and lift our nation to ever higher levels of achievement.

The community itself must provide its own channels of cooperation. Whether it be through community councils, advisory committees, conference groups, workshops, or other means, all the varied elements of the community must get together, try to understand one another, and find common ground for the development of an educational program. Even if the common ground be but to learn respect for individual differences, tolerance of varying viewpoints, and the necessity for providing rich educational experience in the schools, this in itself is progress.

Even when all these steps are taken we still must return to the fact that the superintendent of schools is a person. On the personality of the superintendent, the warmth of his smile, the sincerity of his handclasp, and the depth of his understanding and wisdom, will depend in many instances the resolution of a difficult situation, the unraveling of a complicated tangle. On his fairness, wisdom, and judgment will depend whether the school system, and through it the community, will go forward or backward.

Whether or not this spirit is to be one of courage and foresight, of forthright determination to meet all issues squarely and honestly, with deep spiritual insight and compassion, and intense devotion to the general welfare, is the challenge of the superintendency to all who enrol in it. It offers an opportunity for personal service to God, to country, and to one's fellow-man which is exceeded in few, if any, professions. The superintendent is an orchestra leader, drawing from the community harmony or discord. He is the plant manager, leading an organization into success or failure. He is a laborer, serving public and staff with skill and devotion. The superintendent is a person with an unlimited opportunity for service and a truly great responsibility for leadership.

Can We Resolve Conflicting Values?

Significant Curriculum Issues

HOLLIS L. CASWELL

In Educational Leadership

THE curriculum worker in American schools and colleges encounters many complex and difficult issues. This situation results from the operation of factors which it is important to recognize and understand.

Highly significant is the fact that conflicts in philosophical, sociological, and psychological theories, when applied to education, take on practical significance in relation to the curriculum. Ideas about the purposes of education, the nature of learning and of the learner, and the role of the school in the community must be interpreted into courses of action by those who develop the curriculum. Where differences in these basic theories exist, curriculum issues arise; and the sharper the differences, the more critical the issues become. Ours being a time when many such differences exist, the curriculum worker is beset by problems.

Another contributory factor is the ever-increasing burden of responsibility placed on the schools. Year after year needs of the young, once met largely by the home and other community agencies, have pressed more heavily on the schools. Excessive accident rates on the highway call for driver training by the school, rising divorce rates call for education in sex and family relations, a rising tide of emotional instability calls for personal guidance and counseling—these are but samples of the social needs that press for attention by the school. While these are important and the schools must consider them, they present difficult issues to the curriculum worker who is already dealing with a greatly overcrowded program.

Hollis L. Caswell is Dean of Teachers College, Columbia University, New York City. *Reported from* Educational Leadership, *IX (January, 1952), 207–14.*

Some of the issues that seem to the writer to hold special significance in curriculum development are suggested briefly here.

How shall the values that guide development of the curriculum be determined? Here the setting itself is provided by a world dominated by a struggle over competing value systems, while within our own culture there are substantial conflicts over values. It is obvious that education must be concerned with values. Growth of pupils must be in some direction, for, unless there are goals in mind, one type of learning is quite as desirable as another. Broadly, it can be said that the dominant ideals of the society in which the school functions deter-

mine the values that serve as a directive force in education.

CONFLICTING VALUES

That our culture is in a period of rapid change is well known to all students of society. This process of change affects social values most drastically—both in interpretation and application. Substantial areas of conflict develop. This presents a major problem for the curriculum worker, for he must make choices. He may elect to avoid the conflict areas, in which case he is accepting the concept that the school should take no part in the critically important process of value clarification and reformulation. Or he may take the position that the school should make a value interpretation, which means taking sides, and results in opposition by certain groups in the community to the type of curriculum developed.

Whether considered in terms of the great world conflict in which we are now engaged, or in terms of the dominant characteristics of our own culture, or in terms of developing an intelligent, reasoned basis of action for the individual teacher, the determination of values to guide the curriculum is of major importance. A recent book, *Education and Morals,* by John L. Childs, defines many of the issues involved and presents one approach to their resolution. Study of this source will open up the problem for the curriculum worker in excellent fashion.

How shall the curriculum be related to the problems and conditions of American life? This problem area takes its setting in the period following the great economic crash of 1929, when deep concern was expressed both by laymen and educators that the school curriculum be related much more directly than it had been to the problems our society faced. It was emphasized that education should make a direct contribution to the solution of persistent social problems such as unemployment, use of leisure time, conservation, housing, and health.

During the recent war it was obvious that the nation expected the school to gear its program to existing conditions so that direct contributions were made to the war effort.

NEEDS OF SOCIETY

This experience during two periods of national emergency brought into clear focus a concept that had been taking form gradually for many years, which was that the kind of education afforded by a school system should be determined to a considerable extent by the needs and conditions of the society that maintains the school.

Since the war it has become increasingly evident that relating the curriculum to social problems and conditions involves controversial issues of great difficulty and importance. Strong objections have been raised by individuals and organizations throughout the nation to emphasis on points of weakness in our society. Attacks on *Building America* and like materials are indicative of an unwillingness on the part of

some people to have anything taught that can be interpreted as suggesting a need for change in our existing economic and social arrangements.

The present situation is one in which the relationship of the school curriculum to the problems and conditions of our society presents issues of vital significance. These issues are intensified because of the numerous conflicts within our culture at this time. How should the curriculum be related to such social problems and conditions? What should be the guidelines in drafting an educational program suited to such a situation? Should a direct relationship be sought through curriculum planning? Such are the issues in this problem area. This area is opened up especially well in a recent book by Smith, Stanley, and Shores, entitled, *Fundamentals of Curriculum Development.*

WHO SHALL PLAN

How shall the curriculum be planned? This problem area has two facets: one, determining the part various individuals shall play in planning; the other, deciding how the various elements entering into the curriculum, such as characteristics of the learner, subjects, and social ideals, problems and conditions shall operate in planning.

The first of these points came to attention early in the curriculum movement because of questions concerning the respective roles of the expert and the classroom teacher in curriculum planning. More recently increasing attention has been given to the part the pupil himself should have in planning, and to the role laymen should play.

DISAGREEMENT

The second of these points also has been one of the most persistent areas of disagreement in the curriculum field. The point has usually been raised by questioning the appropriateness of subjects as the basis of organizing the curriculum. The subject framework has been attacked again and again. Two other bases of organization have been suggested as alternatives: children's interests and needs, and some type of social analysis such as areas of living or social functions. Experiment continues with other approaches to organization, the core program possibly being the major variation given wide trial at the present time. Certain major changes in the curriculum considered important by some leaders cannot be achieved without modification of the basis of organization. Yet, extreme difficulties have been encountered with every effort at such modification. Featherstone, in his recent book, *A Functional Curriculum,* presents a thoughtful analysis which indicates a level of examination of all the various factors entering into curriculum planning that would be highly desirable.

Has emphasis on process resulted in too little attention to objectives? For the past few years a matter of major concern has been the "process" whereby the curriculum is developed. This emphasis has related

both to the means employed in curriculum programs to improve the curriculum, and to the way teachers work with pupils as the curriculum emerges in the classroom. In fact, the emphasis has been so great as to raise the issue of whether appropriate attention is being given to what should be achieved. Not infrequently the impression is gained that the "process" is the whole show.

It seems clear to the writer that in the past entirely too little attention has been given to the way in which things have been done. Increased concern with "process" marks a desirable step forward in curriculum work. But also it seems quite possible that at the present time, in some instances at least, an imbalance has been created in the other direction. At root, this is the recurrent issue of ends and means, one of the most critical problems in a democracy. It is probably that better understanding of the more fundamental aspects of this broader problem would assist the educational worker to achieve a proper emphasis in curriculum procedures on goals to be achieved.

DEVELOPING LEADERSHIP

How can the high level of achievement and leadership needed by a society as complex as ours be developed democratically? A problem of increasing importance is frequently pointed out by European visitors to our country. They hold that we submerge the gifted pupil, with the result that our students are far behind their European age mates by the close of secondary education. There is undoubtedly something to be said for this point of view. Our schools represent an achievement of inestimable importance in providing education for the large mass of children and youth, but in devising a curriculum to serve this end the child with exceptional capacities and promise has probably suffered to some extent.

It is consistent with our tradition and social ideas to avoid a type of curriculum that "marks" the leaders and prepares them for their roles. Yet it seems clear that the needs of our country during the years ahead, when we must assume ever heavier burdens of world leadership, require a great group of talented and exceptionally well prepared men and women in all walks of life such as we have never had before. In view of this situation, curriculum workers should face the issue of how to design a curriculum to prepare such a group and at the same time preserve our democratic traditions.

The large number of unresolved issues in the curriculum field may become a source of discouragement to curriculum workers. So long as there are substantial differences of viewpoint in our culture, the curriculum worker must deal with controversial issues. He must expect that much of his work will involve the resolution of differences of opinion and the development of practices suitable to situations where differences exist.

Criticism but No Competition

Music Festival for High-School Students

DIANE COOK

In Educational Music Magazine

FOR six years Southwestern high-school students have been finding an outlet for their musical talents and energies in the Highlander Music Festival, annual project of the Highland Park Independent School District in the suburbs of Dallas.

Every spring since 1946 the schools of this district have sponsored a three-day program of choral, orchestra, and band participation; high schools from all over Texas and neighboring states send their best music students to profit by the supervision of nationally known music educators.

In planning the annual festivals, Highland Park school officials and teachers have wisely chosen not to confine the project to the music department alone but to widen its scope and make it an all-school event, something in which every student and teacher at Highland Park could join, even though his music talent is slight or nonexistent. In one broad step, Highland Park has found a new answer to the problem of creating and sustaining student interest in music.

One of the most distinctive features of the festival is that all performances before judges are noncompetitive, with the exception of the college scholarship auditions. The different chorus and instrumental groups perform before adjudicators or critic judges. The judges write out their comments and, *after the festival is over,* give them in sealed envelopes to the instructors. Clinics are held for individual band and orchestra instrumentalists, presided over by specialists who are university music teachers, members of symphony orchestras, band masters, and other professional musicians of extensive experience. Rehearsals are held for the massed concert which is the climax and concluding event of the festival.

Diane Cook is from Dallas, Texas. *Reported from* Educational Music Magazine, *XXXI (January-February, 1952), 16–17, 36–38.*

Several months before festival time, the adjudicators prepare a list of selections for the concert program. Copies of this list are sent to the music directors of the participating schools for approval and, for the final event, student groups from four states learn the same selection. The final work of coordinating the groups and selecting the best-prepared performers for the Saturday concert is accomplished at the festival rehearsals. At the 1951 concert a selected band of 130 pieces, an orchestra of 130 students, and 250 choir members performed under the

batons of the festival adjudicators. The concerts are held on the campus of nearby Southern Methodist University and are broadcast locally.

The festival always opens on a Thursday night in March or April and closes with the concert Saturday night. For the first two years the students, who pour out of chartered buses all day Thursday, were billeted in Highland Park homes; it has now been found more satisfactory, however, to reserve hotel space. Some schools pay the expenses of their delegates, but most students pay their own way.

Friday the festival is in full swing. After a day packed with enough events to flatten the average adult, teachers included, every festival participant becomes a part of the color and excitement of the Queen's pageant, when marching bands, massed choruses, and dancing groups in bright costume entertain Her Majesty the Queen of the Festival and the princesses and visiting queens of the court. The pageant is held under the lights at the football field, Highlander Stadium. Every visiting school has selected its own queen and these are presented at the beginning of the pageant when the festival queen, who is chosen from Highland Park, is crowned.

The festival has grown tremendously since the first year. In 1946 it was a project of the senior-high school only, but now elementary- and junior-high-school students are included. The host school, forced to limit the number participating, tries to invite different groups each year, but the superior performances of certain musical organizations seems to warrant repeated invitations. Absolute ceiling on the number of entrants is 3000 students, exclusive of teachers and chaperons.

Financially the festival supports itself. Since there is no entry fee for participants, the only revenue comes from the paid admissions to the pageant and the concert. Preliminary work for the festival is divided among committee chairmen from the faculties of the Highland Park schools. Besides the band, orchestra, and choral divisions there are committees for the schedule of events, the elementary concert, auditions, souvenir programs, and publicity. Other faculty members and students help with registration, information centers, ticket sales, advertising, and the planning of the dance for all participants following the Queen's pageant. The art department plays an important part in the preparations, planning and creating the decorations.

The festival spreads out over both the junior-high and senior-high buildings. Auditoriums are used for band, orchestra, and chorus rehearsals, while classrooms house the clinics.

On the whole, student reaction to the project has more than fulfilled all expectations. A visiting music teacher from an Oklahoma high school summed up student and teacher attitude when he declared ". . . . All our kids are not musical geniuses, but the point is that they all like *music!*" ●

The Parent's Right to Choose

EDWARD S. GREENBAUM

In The Nation

"PLEASE excuse Johnny on Wednesday afternoons to take his music lesson." Public schools grant such requests. Parents may also have their children excused to take dancing lessons or to observe Yom Kippur or Good Friday. New York State's education law authorizes such absences, recognizing the parent's right to have a say in his child's education. No one has challenged the right of the state to comply with such requests. But if the parent requests that his child be excused from school to receive religious instruction, there are violent protests from many quarters.

The same law which permits absence for religious observance and music and dancing lessons permits absence to receive religious instruction. But this part of the law, it is claimed, violates the doctrine of separation between church and state, and the issue is now being fought before the Supreme Court of the United States. It is said that the state has no right to comply with a parent's request that his child be excused from school even one hour a week to receive religious instruction. The parents of 200,000 Catholic, Jewish, and Protestant children who make these requests are told: "You may not have your children receive religious instruction during school hours. We have the constitutional right to stop you." This strange position is taken by liberal organizations which usually seek to uphold the rights of the individual.

Edward S. Greenbaum is senior member of the New York law firm of Greenbaum, Wolff, and Ernst. *Reported from* The Nation, *CLXXIV (February 9, 1952), 128–30.*

Excusing children from school for religious instruction is nothing new. The plan is called "released time" and it has been in operation since 1914. Almost every state has some released-time plan. About 2,000,000 children in the country participate in it. Here in New York we have had the program for many years and in spite of legal attacks it has continued.

In some places the released-time program has been abused. This was the case in Champaign, Illinois. There, without the authorization of any state law, religious instruction was given in public-school classrooms during school hours by religious teachers engaged with the approval of the superintendent of schools. The United States Supreme Court, in March, 1948, in the case of *McCollum* v. *Board of Educa-*

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Released Time—

A Crutch for Churches

V. T. THAYER

In The Nation

THERE is a significant difference between the occasional excusing of children from school for a music lesson, a dancing lesson, a family festival, or even the observance of a religious holiday and releasing them each week for religious instruction. Religious instruction on released time requires the public school to organize its program so that children whose parents request it may drop their regular work periodically to attend religious classes without missing any vital instruction. No matter how few those who go may be, the children who remain, and the teaching staff, are expected to suspend all significant operations while their fellows attend the church school.

The educational price paid has sometimes been so high that it has led to the program's abandonment. In Harrisburg, Pennsylvania, for example, the board of education observed that "in order to meet this problem, there must be a curtailment of activities in the school which often are the actual character-building agencies of the school itself."

That a religious minority demands released time for religious instruction has confused those liberals who identify the wishes of a minority with the rights of an individual. Some liberals seem to assume that a parent's right to rear and educate his child is annulled unless the public school cooperates in a religious-education program. Surely this is too strained a point. There is no lack of opportunity for religious education under family and church auspices outside school hours. But this opportunity does not satisfy the religious authorities. Why? Because then it would not be possible to use the authority or the influence of the school to bring about attendance at the church school.

Moreover, we should distinguish between the parent's right to use the school for his own ends and the right of the child. Each child, irrespective of his background, is entitled to an education in the public school free from the divisiveness which an emphasis on religious differences inevitably causes. Objective studies of released-time programs

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V. T. Thayer, formerly Director of the Ethical Culture schools in New York City, now is visiting professor at the University of Virginia, Charlottesville. Reported from The Nation, *CLXXIV (February 9, 1952), 130–32.*

(Continued from page 14)

tion, held that this program violated the provisions of the Constitution. But when the New York fight reached the Court of Appeals, the constitutionality of the New York program was upheld. In its opinion the court enumerated the factors in the Champaign case and said that none of them were present in New York, where the instruction must be outside the school building and there is neither supervision nor approval of religious teachers by the school system.

But legal questions are not the only ones involved in this fight against released time. There are others as important. That we may not like the released-time program is beside the point. While we may think it preferable for our children to receive their religious instruction after school hours or on Saturday or Sunday, others may feel differently. The released-time program is the law of New York. Its constitutionality has been uniformly and finally upheld by all the courts of this state. Those of us who do not want to avail ourselves of its provisions need not do so. In New York City the parents of about 120,000 children do want it. Their children—about one-fourth of those attending public school—participate in the program. Most of them are Catholic, but many are Jewish and Protestant. It is difficult for them and their parents to understand why those who oppose released time and want no part of it have any "right" to prevent others from using it as provided by the laws of the state.

Are the dangers in the New York program real or imagined? Experience of many years has failed to show their reality. Nor have we any basis for believing that this program, if properly administered, will ever constitute a threat to the doctrine of separation of church and state.

The released-time program is not perfect. Its most ardent supporters do not claim that it is. However, they are making an earnest effort to correct its imperfections, including those which might threaten the proper boundaries between church and state. The Greater New York Co-ordinating Committee on Released Time of Jews, Protestants, and Roman Catholics is devoting itself to this task. It believes that the released-time program, if properly administered, can bring valuable religious and moral instruction to many children. It seeks the cooperation of members of all religious faiths to make the plan a vital force for better group relations and increased intergroup respect.

That the fight against released time has been carried to the United States Supreme Court is not surprising. But it is surprising and disturbing to find it made by those who usually fight for civil liberties and against intolerance. A "victory" for them—if they win—may well prove a major defeat. It may be a crushing setback for those who seek to improve intergroup relations and protect the rights of the individual. •

(Continued from page 15)

have confirmed again and again their unfortunate effects on children. Only in the religiously homogeneous community do they operate without accentuating feelings and attitudes altogether different from those their exponents profess to value. As the board of education in Harrisburg pointed out when it abandoned its program, "The public school generally has been our most democratic institution, and any program which emphasizes the differences of the pupils is harmful. News items from cities where there has been 'released time' for religious education indicate that there is now more intolerance, discrimination, and disunity than previously existed in the public schools of those communities." Experience with the released-time program in New York City is no exception to this rule. Studies also have revealed increased truancy, some pressure to enrol in religious classes, and waste of teachers' and pupils' time.

A final objection to religious instruction on released time follows from the fact that it encourages the school and the church alike to neglect their own unique functions in character education. Both institutions are charged with this task, but their opportunities and their contributions are not identical. It is the responsibility of the school to educate for common values—honesty and fair play, truthfulness and temperance, selfcontrol, responsibility, respect for personality, and the like. To be sure, religious instruction can and often does promote these virtues, but there is reason to believe that they are strengthened rather than weakened when they are envisaged as independent of sectarian doctrine and theological dogma. Insistence on religious instruction—either inside the school or outside but in cooperation with the school—as an indispensable condition of moral education both detracts from the significance of the school's unique function in the area of common values and encourages teachers and administrative officers to shirk their responsibility to the church.

On the other hand, the churches weaken their educational programs when they resort to the schools as to a crutch. Were the churches now providing vigorous and vital religious education they would not need to call on the schools to act as recruiting agents. And as long as they continue to lean on the schools they will be encouraged to postpone the day of reform. A comment of Dr. John Haynes Holmes, pastor emeritus of the Community Church of New York, seems to sum up this final point:

> Here is the church rushing to the state for aid and comfort in supporting educational activities which, for one reason or another, it cannot support itself. And here is the state taking over a highly religious function of the church in giving away a precious period of time, to be used in the church's interest.
>
> What the churches need is to be intelligent, free, militant, and united in the ethical and social aspects of their faith. When the churches meet this test, they will have no need of "released time." ●

Back to the Simon-Pure

Intercollegiate Athletics and Secondary Schools

CHARLES A. SEMLER

In The North Central Association Quarterly

ATHLETIC competition is a very important part of the educational program of both colleges and secondary schools. It is one of the most effective means we have for teaching young men and women many of the attitudes and values which we deem important in our cultural and national life. These desirable ends can be obtained only if the athletic program is kept an integral part of the whole educational program and under the complete and direct control of those responsible for that educational program.

Because of the public pressure created by the glamour, entertainment value, and popular appeal of the intercollegiate athletic program we have in the last few years largely lost our perspective and separated it from the remainder of the educational program as far as ethics, purpose, and control are concerned. As a result, a great many abuses have crept in which bid fair, not only to wreck the intercollegiate program, but eventually to affect unfavorably the entire educational and athletic program of both secondary schools and colleges. It is our belief that the college and high-school athletic programs will live or die together and that it will require the closest and most whole-hearted cooperation to cure the current abuses.

Charles A. Semler is Chairman of the Subcommittee of the Special Committee on Intercollegiate and Interscholastic Athletics, N.C.A., and President of the National Federation of State High School Athletic Associations. He is Principal of the High School, Benton Harbor, Michigan. Reported from The North Central Association Quarterly, *XXVI (January, 1952), 253–57.*

It is on the basis of this belief that the Commission on Secondary Schools recommends to the North Central Association that it adopt a statement of policies and principles on intercollegiate athletic practices as they affect the secondary-school program and students. We believe they should concern themselves with the following abuses and undesirable practices in the intercollegiate program:

1. It should be suggested that colleges state as a fundamental philosophy that it is their business to educate and not to entertain the public on a commercial basis. All athletic practices should be premised on such a philosophy.

2. The practice of many colleges offering special financial induce-

ments to athletes to attend, over and above those available to all students, is indefensible and demoralizing. Concerning this practice, the Joint Committee on Standards in Athletics of the National Association of Secondary School Principals, the National Federation of State High School Athletic Associations, and the American Association of Health, Physical Education, and Recreation has thus stated its beliefs: "The solicitation of athletes through tryout and competitive bidding by higher institutions is unethical and unprofessional. It destroys the amateur nature of athletics, tends to commercialize the individual and the program, promotes the use of athletic skills for gain, and takes an unfair and unjust advantage of competitors."

3. To forestall the abuses of proselyting, contact by colleges with prospective students should be made only by their admission officers through the office of the high-school principal. The practice of separate recruiting by college athletic departments is sure to lead to the abuses of today. Neither should colleges permit alumni or other groups to set up scouting or recruiting agencies for athletes.

4. Tryout and elaborate entertainment of high-school students by colleges are equally undesirable and should not be permitted.

5. Rigid standards of scholarship for intercollegiate athletic competition should be formulated, published, and enforced. It is now the common belief among high-school students and the general public that college athletes generally do not have to meet the same standards of scholarship as do other students.

6. Serious consideration should be given to cooperative action between high-school and college groups in setting up machinery for enforcement of reasonable regulations to cover eligibility and contest conditions between the close of a given sport's season in an athlete's senior year in high school and his entrance in college. This would discourage the promotional use of seniors or recently graduated athletes in professional contests and the resultant circumvention of well established controls which give protection during the period up to the close of the senior sports season and after entrance in college.

7. No college scholarships should be granted except on the basis of scholastic and personal achievement for both athletes and nonathletes. The granting of "athletic scholarships" has been the basis of many of the current abuses and is indefensible. When college athletes go before state compensation boards, petition for, and are granted disability pay when injured, the ridiculous end results are apparent.

8. Most state high-school athletic associations forbid or discourage "all-star" and postseason games. Colleges should cooperate by making their facilities and staffs unavailable for such contests. The Western Conference has already taken such action.

9. High schools, through their

national and state athletic organizations, have legislated strongly against national and regional championships, bowl games, out-of-season practice, excessive number of games, long-distance travel, interference of athletics with the remainder of the school's program, and participation in contests managed or controlled by commercial interests. But colleges, to an ever-increasing degree, promote or permit these practices. They not only are the source of many of the evils of the college program but create pressure on the secondary schools to relax their rules.

10. Most state high-school athletic associations feel that undue recognition for a boy in the nature of awards tends to create false values and undermine what they are trying to do. Most of them, therefore, have rules which render a boy ineligible if he accepts any award excepting emblems of insignificant material value. A similar policy in colleges would greatly strengthen these rules and create a healthier atmosphere for athletic competition.

11. Secondary schools, through their athletic organizations, stand ready to cooperate with any educational organizations, such as the North Central Association, in the study and improvement of their own athletic program. They also desire to cooperate with the colleges in an effort to eliminate the evils which beset the intercollegiate program.

Because the North Central Association traditionally deals with those problems which affect the relationship of colleges and secondary schools, we believe it has a definite and peculiar responsibility to deal with these athletic problems. Since the problems are national in scope, we believe the North Central Association should invite other accrediting associations to take similar action. We therefore recommend that the North Central Association take the following definite action:

1. Adopt and set up machinery to enforce more specific standards dealing with these and related problems and abuses current in the intercollegiate athletic program.

2. Insist that its member schools set up machinery and athletic organizations strong enough to enforce and implement such standards.

3. Invite and urge other accrediting associations to cooperate with it in these undertakings by taking similar action in their areas.

It is hardly necessary for anyone to say at this late date that colleges are facing a crisis as far as the future of their athletic program is concerned. But it might not be amiss to point out that because of this crisis they face a grave responsibility and a challenging opportunity to make a great and lasting contribution, not only to the cause of education in both colleges and secondary schools, *but to the very morals and ethics of the nation.* But this opportunity must be seized boldly and without delay. The secondary schools stand ready to cooperate in this effort, and they commend those organizations who already have taken steps to meet the crisis. •

Four Is Better than One

A Team Approach to School Mental Health

ALICE O'SULLIVAN

In The Journal of School Health

THE days are long since past when the school doctor and the school nurse concerned themselves chiefly with the physical health of the child and were satisfied with the treatment of emotional difficulties in a casual, almost a "bedside manner." More and more frequently school systems are adding a consulting psychiatrist to the staff, usually at the suggestion and with the active support of the examining physicians. Gone, too, are the days of the psychologist who happily measured IQ and forgot to consult the school health department for the important physical findings before branding a child a slow learner.

Instead, there has come about the *team* approach which places emphasis on knowing as many facts about a given child as possible. This means not only doctors, nurses, and psychologists working together, but also enlistment of the services of the school social worker as liaison between family and school, and utilization to the fullest of the resources to be found within classroom teachers and school administrators. Only when the best contribution from the disciplines of medicine, education, psychology, and social work are coordinated will the responsibilities to the "whole child," of whom we so glibly speak, be met.

The contribution of the school doctor to any mental health program is invaluable. It is usually his leadership which makes such an approach possible. Due to the position which he holds not only in the school system, but also in the community, it is frequently through his recommendation that a consulting psychiatrist is brought in and the allied fields of social work and psychology are added and coordinated.

In most cases this is the point at which the school psychiatrist assumes direction of the program, usually acting as chairman of the special study group. It is he who coordinates the work of the examining physician with that of the psychologist, social worker, and nurse, and it is he who directs the school personnel in their handling of any special case. His is the decision whether the delusions of "Emerson Epworth" are mild enough to respond to counseling within the school, or whether private psychiatry or a community clinic is indicated. If intensive counseling within the school seems the more advisable course of action, the psychiatrist

Alice O'Sullivan is from Denver, Colorado. Reported from The Journal of School Health, *XXII (January, 1952), 11–17.*

usually delegates this resposibility to the person who has the best relationship with the child. This means utilizing to the fullest the trust and confidence that the child already feels. This may be for a teacher, a nurse, or even the custodian. Should this person have little training in guidance techniques, the psychiatrist frequently deputizes the psychologist to work with them. In addition, he usually lays out the general approach for the social worker.

The school nurse is in an especially good position to make important contributions to the child-study program. Like the school doctor, she frequently is the person who makes referral for a detailed personality study. She is in an excellent position to detect emotional symptoms that might escape notice in the routine classroom situation. In most cases the nurse has an opportunity to observe a child on a long-term basis, and to note the use which he makes of the school clinic. More often than not, it is the child who seeks out the nurse and because of this fact, is more ready to talk to her about the feelings that are associated with the physical complaint. Away from what he interprets to be the threat of disciplinary action or lowered grades, the clinic may become a haven for the child whose central problem is fear of authority. A sensitive nurse can allow him to talk out resentments of which he may be only dimly conscious at the time and later enlist the help of the entire team to improve his adjustment.

There will be times, probably, when she will wonder if progress of any kind has been made by the child along the road to adjustment. At such a point a reevaluation by the psychologist may throw into bolder light the improvement which was obscured, because change has been gradual and undramatic in nature. On the other hand, retesting may serve as the basis for readjusting goals because of lack of progress. New approaches may be needed. Reconferencing may be indicated which would mean review of this case by the psychiatrist and the entire team.

By and large, the use the nurse might make of the results of a personality study are the same as those made by teacher or social worker; chiefly: more objective understanding of the child, an appreciation of how the world looks to him, what mechanisms he charactertistically uses, and what degree of progress can be anticipated. However, the social worker may wish the information organized differently. For instance, she would want to know whether the child tended to seek his own age group or to avoid them, and to have a more detailed picture of the dynamics within the family. The teacher, with a responsibility for academic achievement, would want to know about this child's ability to learn, why his attention wanders so easily, or why he hesitates to hand in any assignment, unless it is absolutely perfect.

But many of you no doubt work in situations where you do not have

your own psychiatric team within the school system, nor do you have excellent state and local mental hygiene clinics at your disposal. Fortunately, this does not mean that you need to work without psychological assistance. There are excellent group tests which can be administered by classroom teachers or other qualified personnel. There are several published lists of available tests on mental health and personality. Those of the Universities of California and Minnesota come at once to mind.

In addition, there are such simple, but none the less profound, approaches to a child's inner yearnings as the "Three Wishes." The child is asked to select the three wishes that he would most like to have come true. As a student grows older such a naive approach can be varied by asking which are the three things he values most in life. It does not take specialized training, when all of Sammie's wishes are for his mother, to realize that he needs to develop a greater sense of self and become less dependent. When the adolescent responds that the three things he values most are love, friends, and a car, it is not far wrong to assume that he is the hypothetical "normal," or that he should have little difficulty in understanding his own age group.

A simple record of a child's likes and dislikes can be most revealing. When Larry waxes moralistic and speaks volubly of his dislike for girls, cigarettes, and swearing, it is feasible to look for other signs of conflict within him. This conflict probably exists between the boy his parents or teachers want him to be, and the boy he unconsciously wishes he were, one who could command the respect of the gang. It is probably well to state here that positive test results are as valuable as negative, though we may seem to spend more time talking of the abnormal or diseased aspects of personality.

The dictum "love the child" is heard less often today. The goal of a special child study is rather to create an understanding that will make possible, not only respect for the individual, no matter how warped he may be, but also the ability to set limits for his behavior that he usually is unable to set for himself, and to enforce these limits consistently. As the teacher becomes aware there are no fool-proof formulas for helping the child—that even the experts proceed experimentally—she may be able to allow herself the luxury of a trial-and-error method.

As this new orientation is experienced by more teachers, referral of a difficult child will not be seen in a negative light, but as a positive factor in her own growth as an educator. No longer will a teacher feel that a request for special study will mean that she has failed and will incur the displeasure of her supervisor. Rather she and her administrator will look on referral as an objective measure of her sensitivity to the problem children. This may approach the millenium, but at least the dim outlines are in view. •

Ask Jimmy—He Knows

A Community with a Conscience

KATHERINE C. COX

In California Journal of Secondary Education

AT the E. R. Snyder Continuation High School, located in San Diego, it is believed that the success of an adjustment school depends on the mobilization of all forces of the community which are concerned with the rehabilitation of youth. These are rehabilitating rather than preventive forces, for the very presence of youth in an adjustment school indicates that these students have already deviated from the norm, and that preventive agencies have been seemingly ineffective.

In San Diego, adolescent deviates are sent to Snyder, which considers its main function to be that of adjustment. Adjustment students may be called "the lame and the halt and the blind" of the adolescent population of the city—those boys and girls who normally should attend full-time junior- or senior-high school but because of some physical, mental, or emotional deviation, or because of some circumstance beyond their control, fail to do so. There are as many reasons for these failures as there are individuals. In general they fall under three heads —health defect, low intelligence, and emotional maladjustment, with infinite variations in each category.

First, there are those who drop out of school for health reasons—chronic asthma, heart trouble, infantile paralysis, faulty vision or hearing, and other similar handicaps.

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To solve the problems of such students Synder School works constantly with such community agencies as the county hospital, the Red Cross, and the board of health. Then there is the state rehabilitation service for those who could not earn without physical re-education. In addition, a leading aircraft company has set up a project for those who have been crippled with infantile paralysis, and pays them the going wage. Always there is the junior employment service to study the disability and try for placement in industry.

The second large group in an adjustment school is that of those of low intelligence. Full-time schools have classes for those of low intelligence and thousands find them adequate to fill their needs. But there is a large percentage who drop out—unable to cope with the situation, frustrated by the big schools and competition with those of superior intelligence. This is the group that Snyder, with the aid of the community, can help. Here again the junior

employment service, with cooperation of a merchants' group has been a major force for rehabilitation.

The third and largest group is those with emotional maladjustments. This classification might well be said to include all others—the health case, the low intelligence, and any others that could be mentioned. However, it is listed separately because of the dominance of emotional maladjustment as a factor. The variations are infinite.

THE CASE OF JIMMY

Many cases could be quoted to show how agencies can help and with what results. There are the immediate agencies of rehabilitation, the juvenile bureau of the police department, the probation office, and the youth authority. The latter two agencies send representatives to Snyder weekly to check on their charges and to plan with the administrator for their well being as to schooling, social program, home placement, etc.

One illustration is the case of Jimmy—an undersized, impish, retarded boy, who had seemingly been upset by sibling rivalry. He had had two operations which had retarded him in school, so that his younger brother passed him and graduated from junior-high school while he was in the eighth grade. This indignity plus all the coddling he had received while ill seemed to put him off balance. Unmanageable at school and at home, he was in the clutches of the law for robbery when he entered Snyder. It was felt that he could not succeed in any school. He was given special help and a chance to try the school work at his brother's level. Weeks went by while he plodded. Then the plan exploded and no teacher could conduct a class with him in it.

NOTHING WORKED

The probation officer, parents, counselor, vice-principal tried first one plan and then another. Nothing worked. Then, into the middle of a consultation walked an officer from the juvenile bureau. Jimmie had crept into an auto-parts lot and stolen piston rings for his car. It had taken several days to pin the guilt on him. We knew that Jimmie had been working on his car; had torn it down. We went to the shop. He had just finished putting the car together again and was about to drive away. To make a long story short, the officer had him tear the car down again, remove the rings, polish them, return them, and get a job and pay for them. The junior employment service cooperated on the job with many misgivings—misgivings shared by the school. A job was obtained; the rings purchased and replaced in the car. For some reason it worked, and Jimmy is still working and paying cash for things. The wisdom of the police officer saved the day, when the school and social agencies had reached no solution.

Emphasis has been placed here on agency cooperation in adjustment and rehabilitation, but the facilities of the school must be mentioned to

give a complete picture of community resources. Within the school system there is, first and foremost, a city schools superintendent who has always been interested in children who have trouble. Next comes the guidance bureau which has furnished a man of high caliber for intensive counseling, a psychometrist for testing, and an unstinted amount of visiting-teacher service. The school division of the junior employment service gives an employment counselor part time to analyze the employment needs and to seek suitable jobs.

Within the school itself there are a guidance-minded faculty, counselors, a field coordinator to visit homes and agencies, and a service-dedicated administration. Every case is analyzed as carefully as possible in the light of available information and a plan of action formulated. This plan is discussed with the appropriate teachers, as are any needed revisions. The teachers themselves work out the plans—being more interested in the emergence of a real human being than in any other phase of teaching.

What does all this effort achieve in terms of figures? How important is it to the community, to society? How many individuals emerge who can have an accepted place in society?

The adolescent population of Snyder is annually about 1500, of whom about 60 percent have court or police records of some kind. In the past 15 years, spot checks have been made at intervals—of many health cases, of 100 mentally inadequate, of 150 discipline cases, of 150 court cases. The results do not purport to show life adjustment, but to show relative adjustment in school, community, home, and job. The percentages of adjustment have run from 50 percent to 65 percent, with the highest percentage going to those of low intelligence.

These percentages may not seem high. In terms of numbers of individuals entering the life of a community the size of San Diego, however, it is of real significance if even 750 are adjusted each year and stay that way. And if the 900 who had tangled with the law prior to coming to Snyder could be expected to continue in a path of lawlessness, the salvaging of 50 percent would mean a fantastic saving to the community and state in terms of money. With each delinquent costing $8000 for incarceration and attendant expense to age 21, 450 would, or could, cost over three million dollars.

Snyder makes no claim that it saves the community and state three million dollars a year. But maladjustment and delinquency of youth are serious problems, and it is felt that with school and community working together at least half of the problems can be solved. An adjustment school cannot succeed as a isolated unit. It must be augmented by all the forces of the community. Snyder Continuation High School and San Diego City are blessed by the fact that here is a community with a conscience. •

Too Much Too Soon

History for Children

LEO J. ALILUNAS

In The Elementary School Journal

WAR, or the threat of war, always seems to produce an educational phenomenon—a hysteria about American history as a school subject. Pearl Harbor put our country into a state of alarm, and the *New York Times* was able to win a Pulitzer prize with an American history test which is generally regarded by educators as an invalid test of historical understanding. There are signs that the international crisis may lead to hysteria about school history once again.

History as a school subject has dominated the teaching of the social studies in both elementary and secondary schools for a long time. And as late as 1921, professional historians, who shaped the elementary-school curriculum in the social studies, by arbitrary methods were able to impose their notions of school history on children. As early as Grade II, pupils studied the making of the United States. In Grade IV, pupils were subjected to the chronological study of the period of 1607–1783. In Grade V, the period was 1783–1877, and in Grade VI, pupils were allowed to study American history since 1877.

In Grade VII, thanks to an educational heritage which was handed down to American historians by the German historians in the late 19th Century, the cycle plan started all over again. The pupils in this grade went back to see what the world was like before 1607. They had the same old kind of American history in the junior or senior year of high school, and, if they went on to college, they learned about 1492 again in the survey course. Is there any wonder that many adult Americans have grown up with "cherry-tree" versions about George Washington and that, for all their genuine pride in their country, they have a feeling of *ad nauseam* about the study of the past.

Leo J. Alilunas is Professor of Social Studies at State Teachers College, Fredonia, New York. Reported from The Elementary School Journal, *LII (December, 1951), 215–20.*

Considerations of child growth have had a slight impact on curriculum-making in the elementary-school social studies. The recent trend, it is true, has been to center the study of the home, neighborhood, school, and community in an informal program of social education in the first three grades. However, formal history, along with its subordinate subject, geography, still dominates the content of the social studies in Grades IV through VIII.

Let us face the issue squarely.

The pedagogical problem is not that children study too little history in the elementary-school grades but rather that they study too much history too soon in their lives.

PSYCHOLOGICAL PROBLEMS

The late educational psychologist, Charles H. Judd, stated that pupil interest in the history of the United States was destroyed by the use in the lower grades of material which might well be held back until more mature insights could be developed. Fifty years ago John Dewey observed that history, as the record of the past, was dead to children because the past, as the past, was psychologically remote to them.

Wesley, Johnson, and other specialists in the teaching of history have recognized that history without time relations is impossible. Yet, the sense of chronology, which deals with events in sequence and which is so indispensable to the study of the past, comes late with children. Psychologists, such as Louise Bates Ames, tell us that, developmentally, children learn words indicating present time first, then words indicating future time, and finally words denoting past time.

It is not until they are eight years old that the majority of American children know what year it is, what day of the month it is, or what "time" means. Most children are 11 years old before they have full understanding of reckoning time, and most of them do not have any sense of chronology before they are in Grade VI. They are 16 years old before they catch up with adults in their understanding of time words and dates, and it is not until they are in Grade XII that they acquire a satisfactory perspective in being able to number events in chronological order. Maturation, not specific training in time concepts, brings about time sense.

Willard C. Olson, one of the country's leading child psychologists, tells us that children, when given a chance to plan the learning process, draw on what is current in their homes, in their communities, and in the world, not on the past. Olson favors the pacing concept of learning and not the forcing method. Children tend to get from a given environment only what they are ready to get. Olson defines achievement as an interaction between an inner growth potential in the child and the nurture he has had. Artificial pressures for learning adult concepts may even destroy children's efforts to learn. In his book, *Child Development,* Olson has much to say about the maturational factors in child development which are affecting what we teach about the fundamental processes of reading and arithmetic and how we teach it.

Just as in the teaching of reading and arithmetic we must give due consideration to the basic factors involved in child growth and development, so must we in the teaching of history. Historical learning involves abstract learning, that is, the formation of concepts. This is symbolic behavior, which is a late develop-

ment phylogenetically, as Edna Heidbreder tells us in her research on the attainment of concepts. Educational psychologists, such as Gates, Jersild, McConnell, and Challman, in their book, *Educational Psychology,* do not hesitate to indict conventional instruction in history and in the other social studies for exposing children to abstract and complex questions before they have an adequate background of experience. This summary of the research on the subject shows that social concepts come more from maturation and indirect instruction than from the imposition of adult concepts.

NATURAL INTERESTS

The plain fact is that children do not have a "natural interest" in the past. Their "natural interest" is in the present, in themselves, and in the world around them as they perceive it. School history is dry and meaningless to children, not so much because of the poor teaching of history, but because children would rather face their own everyday life-adjustment problems. Their own social life is real and meaningful. History is not direct and real to them. History is an indirect experience, and it requires cognitive qualities which cannot be expected psychologically of children.

Elementary-school teachers would do well to follow the philosophy of social education of Joseph Nelson. In his autobiography, *Backwoods Teacher,* this Ozark teacher describes his efforts to teach Sandra and his other "scholars" to stop mistreating the colored children in Big Piney. In reply to his reminder that in our country all persons are supposed to be born free and equal, Sandra told the "p'fessor" that, in her history lesson, she was supposed to be learning how America was before the arrival of Columbus. Whereupon the "p'fessor" defined the function of the school as one of helping her in everyday living, and this meant treating other people the way she would like to be treated by them.

There is also the example of Mrs. Gladys Davis, whose distinction as a teacher in the central mountains of West Virginia has been cited. Mrs. Davis is not known for the history she has taught her sixth-grade pupils. She has a reputation for her profound concern with the life-adjustment problems of every child who has come into her life. The character which her pupils have developed under her influence will be likely to stand them in good stead in this hour of world crisis.

A program of social education which is built around children's everyday living problems would seem to be a great deal more desirable than a program which, in the name of school history, compels children to parrot meaningless dates and phrases at too early an age. Let the rabble rousers "lay off" the children. Let the problem of history for children be determined by scientific-mindedness through experimental research in child development and not by hysterical-mindedness. •

It Can Save You Money

Regular Consulting Service Pays Off

J. H. HULL

In The School Executive

SOME boards tend to regard a request for a professional consultant as a sign of weakness on the part of their superintendent. Some superintendents feel that a consultant overshadows them. Some taxpayers tend to view any funds expended for continuing consultant services as wasteful. Because of these attitudes, many school systems are deprived of the services of a professional consultant.

The continuing professional consultant contributes to a broad, comprehensive approach to local school problems. This is an important consideration for the superintendent and the board of education. The consultant also helps the superintendent who is in doubt about his own thinking by providing a professional sounding board to evaluate his position on critical issues. When administrators compare each other's practices, individual prejudices make it difficult to determine what is good and what is poor.

It is the inevitable day of reckoning that gives rise to the need for the best available consultant service. No superintendent is sufficiently specialized in all fields to avoid all the traps that are concocted to inveigle him into agreeing, a step at a time, to certain administrative policies that eventually add up to trouble and a crisis. No matter how a poor policy came into being, the final result is the same. The superintendent has to face the music sooner or later.

J. H. Hull is Superintendent of Schools of the Torrence Unified School District in California. Reported from The School Executive, *LXXI (February, 1952), 44.*

The superintendent who can persuade his board to retain one of these individuals on a "ready-on-call" basis has great advantage over his colleague who is a lone wolf. The advantage results in long-term smooth operation, protection for the board, and improved educational opportunities for school children, as well as a longer life for the superintendent.

The half-day-per-week or one-day-per-month basis is a sound plan. The regular interval plan avoids the hit-and-run feeling which certain survey experiences have created.

Consultants can easily be misused by superintendents, too. If the consultant becomes a whipping boy for the superintendent, and the advice and counsel he gives is quoted continually, then board and staff and community may soon get to wondering who is the superintendent. But this aspect is even less apt to be troublesome than the willingness of

superintendents to be viewed as authorities who know all the answers. To encourage this soon results in a precarious and untenable position.

The wise superintendent will listen carefully to the consultant's advice on principles and current practices. He will also use facts and sound educational principles to evaluate this advice. His final recommendation will be based on fact, principle, and an impersonal viewpoint. No one needs to be the scapegoat for action based on this kind of thinking and analysis, least of all the superintendent.

A vital factor is the need for high integrity on the part of the consultant. An intrinsic value of the consultant is the independent nature of his relationship to the superintendent. He is, in a sense, an outsider to whom the superintendent can entrust his innermost thoughts and reactions. The therapeutic value of getting it off his chest is, in itself, of no small value to the superintendent, who at times has certain problems which he should not expose, or even suggest, to members of his staff, board, or community.

The balance the superintendent gains from hearing an expert react to his problem, the stability he gains from knowing how others have met the same or similar problems, and the perspective he gains from an outsider's viewpoint tend to make his position sound. Superintendents are often too close and too emotionally involved in the problem to be able to use their own best judgment.

I know of numerous instances in which a consultant has saved a district thousands of dollars. There are numerous instances in which consultants have aided districts in resolving personnel problems without public dissension, and there are numerous instances in which a consultant has smoothed the way by mentioning the one little item that the regular administrator might have overlooked.

In the last analysis, the consultant makes it possible for the superintendent better to represent himself. The school district and the children receive the benefit.

Boards who are responsible for educational policy-making and for expenditures of thousands of dollars annually can hardly afford to ignore the advantages of the continuing professional consultant service. Budgeting the equivalent of one teacher's salary for this kind of service may be considered an economy when appraised in the light of the benefit to all concerned. •

First Position

IN a survey of superintendents from all over the country, the American Association of School Administrators discovered that nearly half of them (49.1 percent) were holding their first superintendency.

A Never-Ending Search

A Publisher Examines His Product

RICHARD M. PEARSON

In The Phi Delta Kappan

THE makers of textbooks and those who buy and use them share a responsibility which is as serious as it is obvious. Textbooks are tools of learning. They go a long way toward guiding the learning process. Every school administrator or teacher, every parent, every public-spirited citizen and taxpayer wants the textbooks of today's school children to promote learning and at the same time reflect contemporary standards, beliefs, and ideals. Textbooks, as true tools of learning, must follow a straight though not narrow path, lurching neither to right nor to left. The assurance that they will keep safely on the main line depends quite plainly on their makers and their users.

Who makes our textbooks? Who puts them into use? How are they used?

The textbook publisher is an American business man, operating his business like anybody else, in the hope of profit under highly competitive conditions. Any inferior product of his is doomed from its day of publication, for no one is compelled to buy his books.

First, in most cases, the publisher chooses his team of authors. Only occasionally do the latter seek the former. A book has little chance of success unless its authors are experienced and respected in the subject field they represent; unless their intimate acquaintance with young people is selfevident, so that needs and interests are sure to be understood; and unless their ability to develop their material simply, logically, and without bias is assured.

Richard M. Pearson is Vice-President and General Manager, Educational Department, The Macmillan Company, New York City. Reported from The Phi Delta Kappan, *XXXIII (January, 1952), 248–50.*

But the publisher has only begun to solve his bookmaking problem when he signs his authors to a contract. The book or series of books which they—publisher and authors—are jointly to produce must meet as keen competition as exists in any business. To safeguard the prospect of success the guards are called out—the editors, the salesmen, the critical readers and reviewers. All are enlisted to study the newly written material, to screen it in terms of both established practices and changing trends, to make sure, in the end, that the new book will be acceptable for its accuracy, sound scholarship, and sane point of view.

Censorship is an ugly word. But this checking and double-checking is not censorship; it is the most dependable insurance policy yet

devised to guarantee for American school children what they need as well as what their parents and communities want them to have.

When a textbook is ready for the market, school officials take a proper hand in its success or failure. The school superintendent, if he has sufficient time and experience, interest and versatility, may conceivably do the book selecting for his school system; and later, if necessary, defend his choices on the grounds of educational reliability and adaptability to local school needs. More likely, he assigns this responsibility to supervisors and teacher committees in whom he has reason to feel complete confidence and whose recommendations he can therefore unhesitatingly support with the full authority of his office.

In either case the job is a professional one, highly specialized in character and deserving of the painstaking attention that it so frequently obtains.

Is there a yardstick available by which a school official or teacher, a board of education member, parent, or taxpayer may hope to measure the utility of the textbooks which are tools of instruction in his community? Probably no single or simple formula can be applied with guaranteed satisfaction in every local situation, but there are some rules of thumb which may be put to work when the usefulness of a textbook is in doubt. Here they are, in the form of questions and comments:

1. What is the date of copyright of the text under review? A book written during World War II, for example, would almost surely treat Russia in a manner markedly different from one written under present conditions.

2. Is the content appropriate to the subject? Does it fulfill the purpose for which it was designed?

3. Are individual passages inspected within their full context? Modern textbooks are carefully planned and whole teaching units must be considered, not merely isolated sentences or paragraphs.

4. What is the textbook's effect on the pupil likely to be? Will it give him maximum help in developing essential skills, in preparing for both the work and play of life, or in understanding the society in which he lives?

5. How is the material intended to be used in the school? Is the student encouraged to accept what he reads unthinkingly, or is he taught to evaluate and discriminate?

6. Does the book as a whole present a fair and objective point of view, free of prejudice and conducive to enlightenment?

The makers of American textbooks willingly concede that their product has not attained perfection. A career in textbook publishing, as a matter of fact, is by force of circumstances a lifelong search for better instruments of learning—for wiser sentiments, sounder judgments, more successful methods, and more effective techniques that lend themselves to the printed page. But the undeniable and heartening conclusion is that the search persists, and may not in the nature of things come to an end. The cooperation of the teaching personnel and the patrons of our schools is solicited in the common cause of fuller and finer education for all the children of all the people. ●

Tradition vs. Progress

Important Issues in Providing State Funds for Public-School Buildings

In State Provisions for Financing Public-School Capital Outlay Programs

This report was prepared by Erick L. Lindman and Clayton D. Hutchins of the Office of Education staff, together with Edgar L. Morphet and Theodore L. Reller of the University of California. Reported from Bulletin 1951, No. 6, *Office of Education, Federal Security Agency, Washington, D.C. Chapter I, 1–9.*

THERE is widespread opinion that methods of providing school plant facilities in the future will be quite different from the procedures operating in the past. Traditionally, each school district provided the plant facilities for its educational program. Some districts provided excellent buildings, while others, for one reason or another, have had inadequate structures, hazardous to pupils, teachers, and community groups. The investment per pupil has ranged, and still ranges, from two or three thousand dollars in some communities in nearly every state, to practically nothing in others.

What has happened in the past has been far from satisfactory for large proportions of the population. Evidence indicates that if procedures for securing school housing in the past are relied on in the future, the situation is likely to become even worse.

The present problems seem to be an outgrowth of factors and conditions which, while varying greatly, will continue to affect the program for some years to come. Districts vary in ability, wisdom of planning, and effort in the provision of school plant facilities. Assessed valuations of property have lagged far behind increases in construction costs and gains in school population. Migrations of population and increased birth rates have had their influence.

The increasing complexity of civilization has resulted in demands for many new educational services. Some of these require new and additional housing and the provision of special facilities that are much more costly than the facilities required for a traditional program. Furthermore, the idea that people can be satisfactorily educated in rooms designed exclusively for academic work has been replaced by the idea of planning for the needs of those being educated. Such a program requires considerably more space per pupil than was required for the more formal program. This conception considerably increases the plant facilities needed for a satisfactory program.

There seems to be general agreement that the citizens cannot afford to let the matter of providing adequate public-school or higher edu-

cation plant facilities drift along from year to year with the expectation that a satisfactory solution will evolve more or less by chance. The citizens of every state are facing a serious problem which can be solved only through a realistic approach. They must recognize that a satisfactory educational program is impossible unless adequate school plant facilities are assured for all persons who should benefit from such a program. They cannot afford the extravagance of using large sums to attempt to educate people who are constantly handicapped by inadequate plant facilities. On the other hand, they must recognize that the problem is not one merely of providing satisfactory school-plant facilities but involves the provision of a complete and comprehensive program, including all services and facilities that are required.

MEETING NEEDS

One of the most important problems today, therefore, is *How can the school-plant needs of the nation best be met during coming years?* In solving this problem a number of important issues must be considered. Among the most significant of these are the following:

Can the public-school plant needs be met satisfactorily by relying entirely on local financing in any state? While local financing of the school plant program has been traditional, an increasing number of states in recent years have found it necessary to develop some plan for state assistance.

Should capital outlay needs continue to be met almost entirely from the proceeds of general property taxes? In many states steps have already been taken to broaden the tax base, particularly for the current expense portion of the school program. From one point of view, this is merely another way of stating the issue with reference to local financing of capital outlay projects, since the chief source of revenue in most local school systems is still the general property tax.

CURRENT EXPENSE

How can a proper balance be maintained between expenditures for capital outlay and those for current expense? Many familiar with the situation know communities in which school buildings have been neglected because of the desire to employ properly qualified teachers and maintain a satisfactory salary schedule for those teachers. In other communities, the need for new buildings has become so urgent that funds which should have been available for current expense have been, temporarily at least, diverted to school plant construction. Regardless of whether buildings are neglected or the instructional program is slighted, the education of the children is handicapped. Some plan is obviously needed to assure a desirable balance between the funds devoted to capital outlay and those for current expense.

To what extent are present state limitations on the issuance of school bonds realistic and equitable?

Most states limit local school bonding capacity to a percentage of the assessed valuation of property. Ratios between assessed valuation and the actual valuation of property vary greatly among districts. School plant needs cannot be met with assessed valuation ratios in some communities that are only one-fourth or one-fifth of what they are in other communities with similar wealth.

LOCAL RESPONSIBILITY

Should the financing of capital outlay at the local level be considered a responsibility of the local school board or of the local governmental agency? In many states the laws give authority to local school authorities to determine financial outlay while in others such matters are the responsibility of local noneducational governmental agencies.

How much emphasis should be placed on financing school plant construction through the issuance of bonds, and how much on pay-as-you-go provisions? State constitutional provisions or laws have been such that there has been little opportunity to construct buildings on a pay-as-you-go basis. But several states have changed their laws during recent years to facilitate at least partial financing on this basis.

What are some of the characteristics of a desirable state plan for financing capital outlay programs? There are a surprising number of variations found in state plans that have been developed thus far. In general they range from those which require a certain amount of state and local funds to be used for capital outlay projects each year to those which provide funds from a state bond issue only to meet emergency needs in the least wealthy districts. While state loans may assist some districts to meet emergency needs, these districts will not be in a position, without excessive tax effort, to repay loans which are generous enough to permit the construction of all necessary school plant facilities. The state program, therefore, must provide grants in proper relation to need and ability although provision may be made in some states for loan-grant funds and for districts to repay a proportion of the amount provided in accordance with their respective abilities.

To what extent can and should state experiences in financing capital outlay in other areas, such as highways and health centers, be used for guidance? Much more substantial financing has been provided for some of these areas than for school capital outlay. Some of these practices should be considered in planning a program of state assistance for school construction.

To what extent should state funds be apportioned in terms of a formula based on objective criterions for determination of local need and ability? Experience has shown that if state funds for capital outlay or any other phase of the program are apportioned on subjective bases, difficulties will be encountered sooner or later. Some states have already made considerable progress

in developing relatively objective and equitable formulas which recognize local need and financial ability.

How can and should a state proceed to determine bona fide capital outlay needs? Estimates submitted by the states vary so widely that some of the estimates are little better than guesses and only a few have been based on careful studies. No doubt, the new federal law (Title I of P. L. 815) will provide material assistance and encouragement to all states in determining their needs.

ADMINISTRATION AND CONTROL

What state agency or agencies should be authorized to administer the state program of capital outlay assistance? In a few states the program has been administered by agencies other than the state department of education. However, the responsibility should be clearly vested in a single agency, the state department of education being the logical choice.

What state controls and requirements should be established? Some state controls and requirements are needed, but there is danger that states may incorporate into the law or regulations such detailed requirements that little opportunity will be left to local school districts to exercise desirable initiative and responsibility in planning and operating their programs. There is need for careful study of this entire matter as a basis of determining the standards and requirements which should be established and those which should be avoided.

For what purposes should state capital outlay funds be used? State capital outlay funds could conceivably be authorized to be used only for the construction of new buildings. If that limitation were imposed, some districts would be seriously handicapped because of their inability to purchase or improve sites, pay architect's fees, renovate old buildings, provide equipment, or make other similar provisions. On the other hand, unless there are some restrictions on the use of these funds, some districts might construct a football stadium when classrooms are more urgently needed or use part of the money for maintenance. Moreover, if state funds can be used only for new capital outlay, districts, which previously voted bonds or otherwise made financial effort to provide satisfactory buildings, will be penalized. This problem of purposes for which capital outlay funds may be used needs to be carefully explored.

SMALL DISTRICTS

How can state assistance best be provided in a state having a substantial number of small and inadequate districts and schools? In a state having small school districts there is always a possibility that some of the state funds will be used to construct high-school buildings in centers where a high school cannot be justified or to construct small one- or two-teacher schools within a short distance of other schools. It would seem that each state providing funds for capital outlay would

need to develop some plan for determining the proper location of permanent elementary- and secondary-school centers and making funds available for capital outlay purposes at such centers, regardless of existing district boundaries.

Should state grants be made only for specified state-approved projects or to all districts which meet minimum prescribed requirements? If funds are made available only for projects specifically authorized by the state, districts may have little incentive or encouragement to plan a comprehensive long-time building program. If the objective of the program is to encourage and strengthen local responsibility and initiative, it would seem that some plan should be developed to make a substantial portion of the funds available to properly organized districts in accordance with criterions established by the state.

EMERGENCY NEEDS

To what extent should state programs be designed only to meet emergency needs? If state funds are available only to meet emergency needs, a relatively small percent of the districts will be eligible while other districts, which may have made a much greater effort over a number of years, will not be able to participate. It should be possible to develop a program in every state that may have certain emergency aspects for a few years, but which places major emphasis on provisions which will meet the needs in terms of planning extended over a period of years.

To what extent should capital outlay funds for local districts be provided from the proceeds of state bond issues and to what extent from current tax revenues? It is probable that no state can anticipate and meet all needs for years to come through the proceeds of a bond issue to finance urgent capital outlay in the local districts; there may and probably will be a tendency to resort to additional bond issues during coming years. Under certain circumstances the issuance of some state bonds can probably be justified. State bonds can be issued in most states at a lower rate of interest than bonds by local districts. However, since capital outlay needs in a state are continuous, it would seem reasonable that the average annual amount needed should be provided from current revenues rather than from bond issues.

How much, if any, local leeway for capital outlay should be left to districts? If districts are required to use all available resources to participate in the state funds for capital outlay, they will be definitely limited to the program authorized by the state. If that program is inadequate, their school plant facilities will continue to be inadequate. It would seem, therefore, that any state program should allow local districts some leeway to use additional local resources to meet capital outlay needs not included or recognized in the state program. •

The Pitfalls of Overguidance

Helping the Learner to Help Himself

ROBERT A. DAVIS

In Education

Robert A. Davis is Professor of Educational Psychology at the George Peabody College for Teachers, Nashville, Tenn. Reported from Education, *LXXII (December, 1951), 252–56.*

WE unconsciously train learners to accept whatever they are told they should learn. Through high-pressure salesmanship or compulsive methods a teacher may create emotional tension that stimulates pupils to acquire copious quantities of low-grade learning. Such learning is likely to be characterized by much memorization and the mastery of routinized tasks. Under such conditions the learner may be encouraged to reproduce textbook material with little regard for mental activity that is distinctly his own. He may be unaware that any further effort is desirable or expected of him beyond being able to acquire information from textbooks and to display evidence during formal recitation and on tests and examinations that he has such information in his possession.

Two important facts so simple and obvious that they may be easily overlooked need to be kept in mind. The first is that it is the learner who learns. Purposeful learning requires active interest and concentration of the learner. The second fact may be regarded as a corollary of the first. Learning is a result both of what the learner does with learning material and what the material does to him.

In general, the only constant factor in a learning situation is a given item of information. When an identical item of information is presented to several individuals it is usually discovered that each individual responds in a different way, makes a different interpretation of it, possesses a different situation in which he can apply it, and manifests a difference in length of time during which he will retain the item.

The greater the extent to which the activities of a learner may be adequately directed by giving directions and explanations to an entire group, the greater the economy of time and effort. In most cases initial guidance does concern the group as a whole. But differences in learners is inevitable and many instructional problems arise from such variability. The disadvantage of excessive group guidance is that of providing unnecessary guidance for some learners and inappropriate guidance for others. We should provide only enough guidance to enable all learners to begin their tasks and give special guidance to those who need it.

The learner should not be assist-

ed in his task to the extent that he has nothing left to work out or to decide for himself. By completing his task for him, one not only destroys his confidence and initiative but deprives him of the satisfaction that he receives from personal accomplishment.

Desire to obtain errorless responses from learners frequently results in overguidance. Courses of instruction are not necessarily poorly organized if pupils do not readily comprehend specific solutions for certain problems. During the initial stages of learning some individuals often will be momentarily baffled and bewildered and obliged to try to think for themselves without ready prospect of finding a solution.

A clear distinction should be made between informing the learner that certain principles may be derived from references, previous assignments, or other experiences with which he should be familiar and requiring him to discover such principles for himself. For example, we may illustrate ways in which the forces of compressed air may be used. When considering such a topic the learner should be required to seek applications. We may hope that he will think of the paint sprayer, air brakes, the pneumatic drill, the air hose at the filling station, or the cash conveyor tubes in the department store. There is greater likelihood of his reaching an understandin of this topic if he makes his own list of applications than if a list is supplied to him.

Possibilities for obtaining any substantial spread of learning in the case of information depends on the manner in which we stress the discovery of opportunities for application. Probably in no other role is the function of the teacher more important than in that of emphasizing aspects of learning in need of application. It is apparent, however, that if learning takes place on the memorization level it is likely to possess little transfer value for the learner. If the information in a subject is to transfer to other situations, it is necessary to point the way to the development of opportunities for application.

Transfer of training, however, is almost spontaneous in the case of levels of learning beyond memorization where the maturity of learners justifies intensive analysis of learning situations. Individuals who have learned to generalize in one field tend to use the same ability in other fields. Other related higher abilities, including ability to interpret learning material and to discover application of principles, appear to be generally associated with effective ways of thinking.

Often learners should be required to examine their tasks thoroughly before even a minimum of guidance is given. Instructions for a project or written questions may be placed in the learner's possession to be thoroughly examined before he is allowed to begin work. For a certain length of time he need not ask questions or make comments but be required instead to plan mentally what he will later attempt to do.

Many of the learner's uncertainties arise before he has taken the trouble to investigate the extent to which he actually can proceed without help.

The period of temporary confusion in which learners almost invariably find themselves often subsides spontaneously if sufficient time is allowed. Excessive guidance during such periods of confusion affords learners with a means of escape. Guidance ordinarily should be withheld until actual attempts have been made by the learner to overcome his perplexity.

The concepts of whole and part learning have important implications for the organization of learning materials. A clear understanding of the whole gradually contributes to the meaningfulness and purpose of each of the parts in relationship to the whole. An understanding of each of the parts and their interrelationships invests the whole itself with meaningfulness.

Use of central topics in our organization of material tends to bring into focus the telescopic picture presented by the total situation. Facts and principles acquire meaning as they become closely integrated and derive meaning from the context that they themselves help to create. The process is cumulative. As unfamiliar facts increase in significance and combine with one another they serve to enrich the meaningfulness of other facts as well as of general rules and concepts. While the learner is acquiring new facts, a reorganization of knowledge is taking place. Learning may be regarded as a continuing process of organization and reorganization of experience.

Conventional organization of materials tends to present an analysis of a situation before the whole is even partially grasped or understood. More effective learning results when in English classes, for example, an entire book is read and the learner receives in a general way, at least, the full effect that its author intended before any particular portion of the book is analyzed or discussed. When teaching a foreign language it is desirable to use the most extensive vocabulary the learner can understand. He may be required to read or even to speak the language at the outset. For example, he may begin with a complete sentence for which he is given the total meaning, thus becoming familiar with the "whole" before he attacks the "parts." He may then be helped to identify the verbs and subsequently investigate other parts of speech and their relationships in the sentence, including grammatical constructions and technicalities of vocabulary, memorizing rules and attempting to synthesize and use his knowledge by translation.

Guidance is involved in the manner in which tests, written themes, and exercises are planned. Returning test papers with correct answers indicated violates the principle of encouraging the learner to do everything he can for himself. Errors should be indicated, opportunities for improvement pointed out, and instances of exceptional merit recognized.

Perpetuating a Fiction for a Fact

Diagraming: A Sterile Skill

ANTHONY L. TOVATT

In The English Journal

DESPITE recent investigations which tell us that diagraming is a skill that has little or no value in itself and that as a method of teaching sentence structure and grammar information it is relatively ineffective, we still teach diagraming.

A few weeks ago I sat in the eighth-grade classroom of a small rural high school. At the blackboard a towheaded "volunteer" attached the final right angle to a sentence, looked quickly for teacher approval, then returned to her seat.

"That's fine, Paula." The teacher came forward. "Now you see, class, what Paula has done shows us how the different parts of a sentence really work. Diagraming is something we all have to know in order to write *good* sentences. It helps us to *see* the parts of a sentence in our minds. Besides it's fun, don't you think?"

Everyone agreed that diagraming is fun, that is, everyone except several boys and a few girls who stared painfully at the floor or at each other.

Later I asked the teacher why she taught diagraming.

"Why everyone knows how helpful diagraming is in visualizing sentence elements. All the authorities recommend it in their handbooks and workbooks. It's a skill students can always call on when they write. Besides, Mrs. ———— expects these children to be able to diagram when they are promoted to her room. What's wrong with it?"

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At the end of 10 minutes she was still not convinced that anyone could have found diagraming a questionable classroom procedure.

I began to ask more people about diagraming—all kinds of people. In fact, I made a limited attempt to test the carry-over value of diagraming. I asked a selected group of 150 persons to diagram a given complex sentence and to answer the following questions: (1) When you write, do you visualize the elements of your sentences as you would diagram them? (2) What would you suggest be given most emphasis in high-school English language classes? This group was highly selective, of course, and included college students, teachers, and members of a local parent-teachers' association, persons who might have more occasion to "apply" diagraming skills to written work than would an equal number of me-

chanics, hairdressers, or farmers.

Aside from the fact that 96 percent of this group was unable to diagram the sentence, perhaps the most significant finding revealed by the experiment was (1) that only two of the six persons who were able to diagram the sentence stated that they actually applied diagramming skills to their own writing and (2) that 57 of the persons who were unable to diagram the sentence still maintained that, when they wrote, they visualized sentence elements as they would diagram them! The implications are so clear they need scarcely be pointed out.

Notable, too, is the fact that 86 of those who could not diagram the sentence still believe that more emphasis should be placed on the teaching of grammar, which includes diagraming We have so thoroughly imbued our students with the belief that mastery of a skill which takes hours and hours to acquire and which has little or no practical value in itself must be pursued to even greater lengths.

While it is admitted that all the factors inherent in any suggestion for "what ought to be" are practically impossible to single out, yet the fact that 53 persons, comprising 40 percent of the total number cooperating in the experiment, indicated a dissatisfaction with formal methods is not without some weight.

How widespread is the teaching of diagraming in our schools? In a current study of the practices of teaching English in 170 high schools, I asked teachers to indicate whether or not they believed certain teaching procedures to be sound, unsound, or questionable, and whether they used such practices frequently, occasionally, or rarely (never). Of 360 respondents, 165, or 71 percent, indicated that they believed diagraming of sentences to be a sound classroom procedure and that they use it either frequently or occasionally. Only 29 teachers do not believe the practice to be sound and rarely (never) use it. This is in part an answer to the question on the prevalence of the teaching of diagraming in high school.

Although this brief investigation admitedly does not completely dispose of the value of diagraming, for the thoughtful teacher of English the following conclusions and implications may be drawn:

1. The carry-over value of diagraming beyond the classroom to actual writing situations in life is to be seriously questioned. From a purely functional standpoint, then, the demonstrated value of this teaching procedure to good communication is clearly lacking.

2. Persons who have been taught diagraming, though unable to perform the mechanical skill of manipulating sentence elements into a prescribed form, still believe that they use this skill when they write and would wish to see more emphasis given diagraming in high-school English language classes. In the face of such evidence, it is clear that we as English teachers are perpetuating a fiction for a fact.

3. Despite the limitations inherent in the sample used in the study, this finding alone should give the conscientious English teacher pause and cause him to re-examine the effectiveness of his teaching practices in light of recent research. ●

Here's Some Help for Writers

The Art of Writing Educational Reports and Articles

ELIAS LIEBERMAN

In The New York Supervisor

IN the course of my professional duties, it is necessary for me to read a good many reports, pedagogic articles, and books dealing with pedagogy. The great majority of these suffer from pretentious, inept writing. Finding the central thought in some of them is like looking for a sailboat on the Atlantic Ocean. The turgid waters of verbalism are everywhere, hiding the little sailboat in the trough of the sea.

Reasons for the low status of educational writing are partly personal, partly professional. Not too many teachers have been trained to write clearly, tersely, effectively. Too many of us desire to appear up to date in the use of the latest fashionable phrase and pedagogic locution. Not so long ago every article intended for the elite had to have "a frame of reference." The choice of the moment is "tapestration." You can readily figure out for yourself what that means in plain language when applied to patterns of thinking. Recently, a very sensible woman connected with one of our important colleges defended her vague and overworded article by saying to an inquiring friend, "If I wrote simply, I would lose status at the college."

Be that as it may, the time is long overdue for a movement to promote simple, clear, forceful pedagogic writing. What are some of the worst faults that we may find in pedagogic reports and articles? One of the most obvious may be called *outlinitis*. If some of the pedagogic pundits do not have a series of items numbered from 1-10, or from A-P, they think all is lost.

Elias Lieberman is Associate Superintendent of Schools for New York City. Reported from The New York Supervisor, *(Fall, 1951), 5, 7.*

Faulty sentence structure, particularly weighing down the sentence with too many words, is also much too common. Note this one selected from the Report of the Commission on Social Studies sponsored by the American Historical Association, 1934:

> Although the basic biological equipment of man seems to be comparatively invariant and may therefore be expected to give certain common elements to education everywhere and at all times, human civilization has characteristics of neighborhood, region, nation, and well extended cultural areas which lend unique qualities to every working educational program, however persistent and pervasive may be the universal elements entering into it.

Ineffective writing sometimes is

due to the use of too many abstract terms. A long sentence suffering from this weakness creates a state of befuddlement in the reader. Occasionally the use of too many prepositional phrases and too many independent clauses in the same sentence can serve to obstruct meaning. There is no need to cram into one sentence the main idea and all possible relevant associations. The following sentence from "Vocational and Practical Arts Education in New York City Schools 1942" would have benefited by being broken up into component parts:

> The junior-high school is organized for the purpose of accepting this objective, particularly with ninth-year pupils, but as only half of the students entering the secondary schools come from the junior-high schools, it becomes the business of the vocational and the academic high schools to see to it that early specialization is prevented and that the pupil does not choose a course until he has had experiences which will enable him to make a proper selection.

Good writing in any field depends on the author's grasp of his subject and his skill in communicating ideas. What the author has in mind and the objective that he hopes to accomplish must be made clear for the reader. Clearness therefore is a matter of the greatest importance. Without this quality, the most learned treatise will fail in its mission of conveying a thought. There are various rhetorical devices taught in the upper grades of high school and in the freshman years of college which promote readability. There are ways of indicating emphasis. There is a necessity sometimes for graceful cadences, picturesque treatment, and illustrative narrative. Just as a straight line for the Euclidian geometrician is the shortest distance between two points, so clearness in writing guarantees direct transmission of an idea by means of language from author to reader.

In conclusion, among the thumb rules that I think should be remembered by all who engage in educational writing are the following: Avoid outlining of material unless such an outline is definitely called for. An outline is not an article; it is a bit of scaffolding which needs to be draped. Avoid crowding your sentences with too many subordinate clauses and phrases. When you become suspicious of a sentence because of its language, rewrite it or break it up. Lastly, have the courage to be simple. Someone has said that a mediocre scientist can write a passable book in his specialty but that it takes a master mind to write an effective primer. Cut your article short when you find you are unnecessarily repeating yourself. You have a better chance of attracting a reader or two to what you have to offer when you are reasonably brief.

And now, lest I wear out my own welcome, I shall heed the advice I have given and stop. ●

YOU write with ease to show your breeding,
But easy writing's curst hard reading.—*Richard Brinsley Sheridan*

Potent As Well As Popular

Science Fiction for Science Students

JOHN D. WOOLEVER

In Science Education

ALTHOUGH they have been published for more than 100 years, science fiction stories have risen in popularity enormously since the end of the last war. The influence of this type of narrative on its readers, especially juveniles, should not be ignored by the science teacher. Science fiction has some good possibilities, although it also can have a very detrimental influence on science classes.

Science fiction for many years was considered sometimes to be very poor, low-grade literature, even though much of it was written by respected authors—Wells, Verne, Poe, and London. But today an inspection of some scientific and educational journals will show that science fiction has invaded suggested literature in the book reviews. It is not uncommon now to read a science fiction story appearing in a pulp magazine that was written by a respected scientist or a science student working on his doctorate.

There are probably both good and bad points about almost anything that is written. But, when literature is published for light reading and quick sale, it must be examined very carefully if it is to be used with young minds. In a study being made of science fiction publications (which are available to children, although not necessarily written for them), the following objectionable features were found. Most science fiction had inferior bindings and poor quality paper. Little true science was presented; few facts and principles and no scientific methods were used. There were many half truths in addition to quasi-science. Much of the vocabulary was not scientific. Repetition of general plots was common. Astronomy and space travel were overemphasized. There was much "flashy" art in the illustrations. Excessive "love interest" at times was not suitable for children. Life appeared to be cheap, with death and destruction of "undesirable characters" too common. Cruelty, militarism, and grotesqueness were emphasized.

John Woolever has taught in the Detroit, Michigan, elementary schools. *Reported from* Science Education, *XXXV (December, 1951), 284–86.*

Every science fiction book made available to students should be read very carefully by the teacher. If the students are to benefit at all in the way of science, the values they are to gain from reading the story must far outweigh any of its weak points. A science fiction story must be judged far more critically than any other narrative. With the age group,

comprehension, and vocabulary of his students in mind, the science teacher should determine, first, exactly what type of science fiction story he needs or wants. To get an excellent classification of science fiction stories, O. J. Bailey's work, *Pilgrims Through Space and Time,* is one of the most comprehensive on the subject and readily available to all who frequent any metropolitan library. Having found the story or book worthwhile for his purposes, the science teacher should consider any objectionable points. Final analysis should be based on the same considerations as those used in judging any juvenile fiction. In a recent study by the author, students who had read suitable stories, watched television shows, or listened to science fiction radio programs appeared to benefit somewhat. The radio and the television shows had few objectionable points.

Worthwhile science fiction should (1) develop the imagination and curiosity; (2) aid students in distinguishing fact from fiction; (3) show the difference between possibility and probability; (4) help students develop an open mind; (5) show that times and events change; (6) show the social and spiritual implications of science and technology; (7) develop appreciation of scientists and scientific progress; (8) develop critical, analytical thinking; and (9) prepare students for future events and possibilities.

In building a good collection of science fiction stories, there should be variety in the collection. An approved book should be made available to the students at all times and should be suggested to the students when the particular subject under study is apparent in the fictional narrative. Science fiction should never be required reading; it should not be used as a substitute for other scientific literature but could be encouraged as reading during science study periods and as light leisure reading.

In spite of all the science fiction written for public consumption in the last 100 years, there is a comparative lack of really good science fiction which is suitable or written especially for children. Considering the potentialities of good science fiction, it might be well worthwhile to look into the possibility of increasing the amount of this type of literature on our library and science-room shelves. If the regular science fiction authors do not fill our need, it might even be worth our while to encourage our scientists, especially those who write adventure stories, and our science teachers to write the type of stories we need. •

Science on TV in Britain

CHILDREN in 12 London schools will be taught their first science lessons by TV this spring over a special BBC circuit. The pupils will be between 11 and 16 years old.

Don't "Type-Cast" Adolescents

Universal Human Problems: Adolescent Phase

JOHN J. BROOKS

In Child Study

THE adolescent in America, to a large extent, is an assembly-line product, on which every effort has been made to stamp the middle-class standards and folkways peculiar to our society. Western civilization and human biology, in an ofttimes unholy alliance, are responsible for many of the problems faced by our young people. Both of these formidable factors seem to be here to stay; but there is much that adults can do that is helpful in guiding young people toward good adjustments both to their culture and to their "innards."

Most of the well-known and often discussed problems of adolescents are interrelated and overlapping. Moreover, they are essentially universal *human* problems. Adolescence is simply one period of growth in which certain aspects of these problems are pressing and important to young people. Thus, as parents and teachers, we must somehow peer around our own insecurities and fears to view helpfully the similar problems facing young people. If we are to be helpful adults, we must first stop ourselves from projecting adult standards and mature patterns on young people. Our entire culture seems to be in conspiracy to make life as difficult as possible for young people.

Let us use as only one example the situation in regard to their relation to the opposite sex. Annually we adults change our minds about which portions of the female anatomy shall be concealed or revealed. Vast cosmetic campaigns help mothers to drill their daughters in the techniques of tease and capture, but these activities must be carried on by sets of rules that vary with time and place. We consider, for instance, that a boy may embrace a girl with complete propriety, no matter how possessive his grip, provided he presents the illusion of listening to dance music. Five seconds after the music stops, this act becomes indecent.

In addition to coping with adult standards and confusing social codes, many of the young people in America face a problem which has been too little studied and analyzed. The accidents of history and the nature of our school system have resulted in an educational process which is largely characterized by

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middle-class objectives and middle-class behavior patterns. We must constantly remind ourselves that the values we teach, the information we present, and the behavior we demand reflect only one segment of our great American people. Most of our history books are centered on our white pioneering fathers and their westering caravans. Unquestionably the New England background and the western movement are splendid and unique chapters in history. The Anglo-American, white, Protestant middle-class tradition has played an enormously important role and perhaps has thus far represented the major cultural heritage of the country.

But times are changing rapidly. How strange this tradition must appear, for example, to thousands of Mexican youth, to Negro children, and to great numbers of one-generation immigrants to America, whose historical roots are very different!

The vast majority of teachers and counselors are kind and hardworking people who love children of all backgrounds. But they need more than this. They need to go beyond kindness and try to understand our total culture; they need to be keenly aware of their own biases of class, custom, and age, wherever these exist. They must seek to identify themselves with children whose backgrounds, values, and behavior patterns are not necessarily inferior but merely different from those of the counseling adults. Parents, too, can no longer ignore the side streets. Their children won't.

There is something else adults must guard against. As Dr. Kenneth Clark, co-founder and associate director of the Northside Center for Child Development in New York City, says, "The youth has gained an increasing reliance in viewing his parents and teachers; the uncritical glow and evaluation which he gave them as a child begin to dim with adolescence. The adult who resents, denies, or feels threatened by this growing youthful keenness will be sure to lose stature in the eyes of the adolescent." Adults who meet this growing "equality" on the part of youth with ease, understanding, and respect are earning new admiration from young people. The relationship will change, must change, and should change, but there is no reason why it should deteriorate.

Adults whose understanding of life and whose inner security enable them to accept, even welcome, the growing status and abilities of young people have found the finest means for enabling adult and adolescent to meet problems together. Though confused and sometimes uninformed, young people *are* keen and amazingly competent. With rapport established, adults are in a position to help young people, to clarify their problems, to find the needed information, and to suggest courses of action. Programs planned under such conditions have reality for young people because they played an important role in planning them.

Developing easy, natural, and

consistent relations with young people is very difficult for many adults because the social roles of young and old have changed, and are changing, rapidly. The counseling adult finds himself forced to play many roles. Sometimes he serves only as a wailing wall for youthful woes; again, he may simply enact the character of a nondirective comrade; in swift succession he may become adviser, commanding first sergeant, or master planner. Such virtuosity can only be accomplished if the adult feels very secure about his role and responsibilities.

The superficial student of child development is inclined to confuse equality of ego and personal integrity with equality of experience and responsibility. Parents and teachers who may have suffered painful authoritarian childhoods and who have misread the findings of modern psychology are inclined to treat children as "equals" in a quite unnatural sense. The same adults would recognize that there is no question of equality between the inexperienced interne and the widely respected medical specialist. Adults' attempts to equate youth and maturity in the sense of responsibility always fail in the face of reality. The adult who has had several decades of experience as a social being and who expects the child to have the same balance and good sense will be more apt to find, to his complete confusion, that he is dealing with a delightful, destructive, lovable little primitive.

Equality like this has neither sense nor sincerity. Equality, on the other hand, of human dignity and personal integrity is the inalienable right of young and old. Mutual respect, in this sense, is essential and does not have to be confusing. There is no difficulty if we respect young people as human beings and as *young* people. Our confusion arises from our attempts to respect young people as old people!

It is high time for the overanxious and tense grown-up to relax in his role. He is far better equipped than his predecessors to be helpful to young people. He must not be too concerned with his small mistakes and failures. It is the long-range relationships with young people which are important. If he has achieved a broad understanding based on study and observation, his small acts will tend to be consistent, helpful, and purposeful. They will be easily received.

The adult who understands his society, his own and the adolescent's role in that society, who sincerely respects young people and understands their growing skills and problems need no longer act like an anxious automaton, fearful that his small single acts are in violation of scientific principles and moral codes. Understanding and accepting the cultural and personal handicaps of the adolescent, recognizing the adolescent's problems as basically universal human problems, he can move with skill and friendly purpose as a responsible adult facing a rewarding and demanding task. ●

A Living Language

Functional Approach to Teaching Latin

KATHERINE METZNER

In West Virginia School Journal

THE functional approach to the teaching of Latin is not a method; it is a philosophy that reveals Latin as a language, living in the very roots of our society. To get a student to comprehend that Latin was truly a language of communication, just as we use English, he must first understand that it was written and spoken by live people. To do that we teachers must make those people flesh and blood, recreate the history in terms of our students' vocabulary, and relate their language to them as people. It isn't difficult to do.

The functional approach tries to use Latin meaningfully in oral conversation, growing in comprehension and complexity with the growth of vocabulary and grammar concepts. The sound and feeling for the language are emphasized by much oral reading.

Would that the word "translate" had never been derived! The very word stultifies the living idea. The true aim of teaching Latin by any method is to read Latin as Latin in the Latin word order. The functional training of grasping meaning directly from the Latin in the Latin word order, even if transverbalized, is realizing one of the aims in teaching Latin, that of teaching judgment by the suspension of opinion until all facts are marshalled.

I feel strongly that even beginning students should read Latin that carries valuable information. Reading that tells the myths, the character, and the history of the Romans can be related immediately to the students' own use. It catches their interest, it gives them something to talk about at home, and it stimulates their desire to acquire the tools necessary for greater understanding.

Beside the oral objective presentation of the language and people, reading Latin as Latin, the functional approach means to introduce the student to new words and grammatical forms in context. This is much easier than it sounds. Even texts not designed for this method can be taught in such a manner that the reading material is read, discussed, and understood before the rules are formulated or vocabularies assigned. Let the new word be guessed by its need in the sentence, by its similarity to English or words learned earlier. The concept of a word is fixed if it is associated with its parents. The concept of stability can be taught through effective word study. As for grammatical forms,

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even though they take more time and patience, they are understood and therefore learned more thoroughly if first they are recognized as a new element in Latin sentences, their characteristics more sharply etched by comparison with the already known; then, by using the new form in English sentences, a rule can be formulated. The text book grammar explanation is relegated to the end of the lesson unit and is rarely needed.

While it is being established that the Romans were people who spoke and wrote Latin, it is successful to introduce the study of it by the oral-objective approach. The very first lesson can teach pronunciation by imitation, using the objects of the room to stimulate Latin speech. This puts the thought of the student on the reading material and its information, where it should be.

Much oral drill can be done in unison. It saves time, it can be effective, it helps the slow student, and it employs both sight and sound. For example, the review of an adjective can be done orally, perhaps at the moment a mistake in agreement has been made. Never do I use this device until all forms have first been met in reading and explained individually, as well as organized and placed on the board in paradigms. We do them in rhythmic patterns, and I hear all off notes. I point to the imagined paradigm as we repeat it. The students get the habit of seeing the paradigm mentally as well as hearing it.

To obtain a recognition vocabulary, which is most important with the emphasis on reading Latin rather than translating English to Latin, a variety of drill is necessary. Present new words as graphically or dramatically as possible. Be sure the students can spell, pronounce, and explain the meaning of a given vocabulary. That essential minimum of vocabulary I call our "must" words. Use given words in English sentences asking for the Latin word from which it comes. Frequently write English-Latin and Latin-English word lists on the board, underscoring the similar elements of each. To make the study of any language useful, its vocabulary must be meaningful.

Use your knowledge of history, art, literature, and philosophy to open windows of your students' minds. Make mythology entertaining and pertinent by linking it with everything that comes to hand or ear. The double impression of sight and sound are absolutely necessary.

The functional-oral-objective-reading approach to the teaching of Latin gives the student the immediate feeling of using the language to express thought. That established, he has a purpose and a goal. It is easy from there to help him grow in mastery and appreciation of the Latin language. It is much better to create an environment in which the student likes to learn rather than learning to like it. •

RADIO has added about 5000 words to the English language.

With Education in Washington

THE EDUCATION DIGEST WASHINGTON BUREAU

Individual Rights and the State.—The big news this month is that the individual lost a round or two but won one in his battle with the State. The U.S. Supreme Court upheld the right of a state to keep teachers from the classroom if they belong to questionable organizations or keep dubious company. In another decision, the Court refused to interfere with a state's law requiring reading of the Bible in public schools.

The net effect of these decisions is to trim the absolute freedom of the individual—to impress on him that he is not free to do as he pleases and still enjoy the protection of organized society.

Thus, the Supreme Court told teachers in New York that they are not free to work for the state on their own terms. They must abide by the Feinberg law, which denies them the right to belong to organizations listed as subversive by school authorities. Parents in New Jersey were told, in effect, that they cannot call on the Constitution to override a state law merely because that law is distasteful to them. Hence, the New Jersey law requiring Bible reading in public schools was left untouched.

UMT Setback.—In Congress, the powerful arm of the State was also seeking to assert itself. It was reaching out for no less than the right to put youth in uniform, to train them as soldiers, and to keep them on call for duty for the largest part of their young manhood. The debates on universal military training in the House were among the most momentous of this decade. As this issue goes to press it appears that Congress decided to line up on the side of the individual, at least until after the '52 election. The House virtually killed the UMT bill for this session when it tossed the whole issue back to the Armed Services Committee.

While Administration forces failed to pass the bill despite all attempts at parliamentary maneuvering, and further agreed to shelve consideration of it in the committee itself during the current session, there is always the chance that the Senate may pass a bill on the subject or that the turn of world events may afford the opportunity to again bring UMT before the House during this session. In any event, the Administration will come back again, with another plan; and again, with yet a third plan. The House vote in March only postponed the decision.

Relieve Sports Pressures.—This year will record no more heroic act than that performed by 11 college presidents. Braving the scorn of zealous alumni, organized sports promoters, and game fans, they called for a halt to the national college sports saturnalia of bribes, fixed

games, pampering of players, and overpayment of coaches. They said it is time to relieve external pressure on young men to win games for the sake of publicity. They said it is time for each college faculty and president to take over control of athletics. They said it is time for colleges and universities to live up to the ideals they champion.

So there is the heart of the athletic policies for American education; and not, as the sports writers would have it, whether there should be bowl games or spring football practice.

The policies may be unpalatable to the sports-page readers, but they have been approved by the executive committee of the American Council on Education and are being received favorably by individual college presidents. At least, few protests from individual institutions have reached Washington, says the Council.

Fluoride Controversy.—A short four years ago the U. S. Public Health Service convinced Congress that adding fluoride to drinking waters is a safe way to reduce tooth decay among children. As a result, scores of communities throughout the nation accepted the practice. Today doubts are creeping in. A special House committee studying chemicals in food heard experts disagree on the safety of fluoridation.

Howard V. Smith, a University of Arizona chemist and co-discoverer of the role which fluorine plays in dental health, said that he is opposed to the fluoridation of water supplies until more is known about the effect. He said scientists don't know what safe fluoride concentrations in each climatic zone should be. He said that individual reactions to fluorine and differences in the amount of water consumed as a result of an occupation have a bearing on the amount of fluorine which can safely be taken in. Therefore, it is difficult to establish safe doses for fluoridation of public water supplies, Dr. Smith argued.

The safest procedure, he said, for reducing caries is to paint children's teeth with fluoride—and that should be done under the school's supervision.

The American Medical Association, on the other hand, said flatly: "There is more scientific evidence available to substantiate the safety of adding controlled amounts of fluorides to water than there is for the addition of any chemical to a food. In the more than 200 municipalities that have fluoridated their water supplies, no serious problems have occurred."

The Economies of Segregation.—If Negro children are permitted to sit side by side their classmates in District of Columbia classrooms, it will be not because of idealism but because of dollars and cents.

In an outburst of anger, local residents told the Capital's board of education it is too costly to operate a dual system. The board then

ordered Supt. Hobart Corning to make a study "of the possibility of integrating white and Negro schools." The study is to consider the economic savings and the moral correctness of a single school system. Recommendations must be ready by April 1.

Local revolt began early this year when the board of education found its white schools with hundreds of empty desks and a surplus of teachers. At the same time Negro schools were crowded, with too few teachers to serve them. To maintain the fence between the two racial "divisions" (as they're called in Washington) the board was about to be forced into hiring more Negro teachers at a time when it had to discharge or keep idle white teachers. "Why not use white teachers to teach Negro children?" asked some. To which the Negro community leaders replied that in the name of equality Negro teachers should be used to teach white pupils. The American Federation of Teachers contended that proposals to use white teachers in Negro schools to relieve the shortage would be a "step backward" if Negro teachers were not permitted to teach in white schools.

By this time the community was aroused. "Integration," said the American Council on Human Rights, "is the only democratic and economic way to operate the public schools."

Catholic schools, which have integrated Negro students, have shown that an unsegregated system is possible, said the Catholic Interracial Council of Washington.

The final answer lies not with the board of education, but with Congress. The board can only ask for legislation to end segregation. It must be approved by the lawmakers from Mississippi, from South Carolina, and from every other state in the Union—but not from the District of Columbia. Washington does not vote. It has no representatives in Congress. But Congress nevertheless controls municipal life and budgets.

Howard University's Eighty-Fifth Birthday.—The only national university supported directly by Congressional funds celebrated its eighty-fifth birthday on March 2.

Howard University, in Washington, was created by act of Congress in 1867. To observe the birthday, government officials joined with educators to honor both the institution and its president, Dr. Mordecai W. Johnson.

The importance of Howard is that it is one of the few institutions where young Negroes can fulfill their aspirations to become doctors, dentists, pharmacists or engineers. It serves hundreds of Negro students from southern states who want to advance beyond the B.A. in education, social work or music. Howard University is rated by some of the members of the American Association of Law Schools to be the most significant center of studies in civil rights among the law schools of the United States.

Dr. Johnson is acclaimed among the Negro people because he is a fighter. When Congress was toying with the idea of cutting the law school faculty from eight to five instructors, Dr. Johnson said, "If there is anything that is valuable to a democratic country, it is to establish by actual decision of the courts the assumption that the most aggrieved minority can defend its constitutional rights by the due procedures of the law. I would suggest that the law school of Howard University, working hard to establish that presumption should be the last law school you would want to cut down to the bare minimum of five members."

But Dr. Johnson does not look at his institution as "for color only." He points out that it has a mixed board of trustees, a mixed faculty, 361 students from foreign countries, and a sprinkling of white Americans among its 3000 students. "Howard University is a national institution, belonging to all the people of the United States," said Dr. Johnson on the institution's eighty-fifth birthday and Washington applauded.

Educators' "Secret Weapon."—Not to be outmatched by the military, educators, too, have their fantastic weapons for future wars. One such instrument is located in the U. S. Office of Education. It is kept ready for use by the men who maintain a roster of 150,000 highly specialized scientists. The fantastic weapon is basically an electronic facsimile transmitter to be used in relaying information about urgently needed scientists.

Suppose the Atomic Energy Commission at Los Alamos needs a chemical engineer who can read Russian. The AEC phones Washington with the request to find out where such a man could be located. The fantastic weapon is set to work scanning thousands of punch cards in search for the right person. When located, the information is transmitted by facsimile to Los Alamos in a matter of seconds.

The weapon is still in an experimental stage, the U. S. Office of Education likes to say. It has never yet been subjected to battle conditions. But the dreamers see the day when colleges and universities may adopt it for peace-time uses—such as spotting a candidate for a college presidency which was vacant too long!

Citizenship Day.—President Truman signed a Congressional resolution merging I am an American Day with Constitution Day under the new name of Citizenship Day.

September 17 was named by Congress as the appropriate time for observing Citizenship Day and the President agreed. The reason for the change is simple: schools and colleges will be better able to sponsor appropriate programs on September 17 than in May, the original time for I am an American Day. The President said the day should be used to honor those coming of age and those who have become naturalized.

• Educational News •

CHANGES IN SUPERINTENDENTS:

Sioux Falls, So. Dak.: **Lyman M. Fort** has resigned.

TEACHER-TRAINING INSTITUTIONS:

University of Omaha, Nebr.: **E. M. Hosman** has been named dean of the newly established college of adult education.

University of Wisconsin, Madison: **Theodore L. Torgerson**, professor of education, will begin his retirement at the end of the 1952 summer session.

COLLEGE PRESIDENTS:

Monmouth, Ill., College: The Rev. **Robert W. Gibson** has been named president, to succeed the Rev. **James H. Grier** who is retiring.

Central Luzon Agricultural College, Republic of the Philippines: **Arcadio G. Matela** was installed as the college's first president.

Emerson College, Boston: **Jonathan W. French, Jr.** has been named president.

State University Teachers College, Oswego, N. Y.: **Foster S. Brown** has been appointed president. He was formerly dean of the State University Teachers College at Cortland, N. Y.

University of Washington, Seattle: **Henry Schmitz** has been named president. He was formerly dean of agriculture and forestry at the University of Minnesota.

OTHER CHANGES AND APPOINTMENTS:

Paul R. Hanna, professor of education at Stanford University, has been appointed director of education of the Mutual Security Agency's special technical and economic mission to the Philippines.

RECENT DEATHS:

Harry W. Greene, professor of education, West Virginia State College, at 54 years of age.

Wallace W. Charters, former head of the research bureau of education, Ohio State University, at 76 years of age.

George H. Black, former president, University of Newark, N. J., at 78 years.

Charles C. Ward, president, State Teachers College, Plattsburg, N.Y., at 60 years.

The Rev. **John M. Thomas**, former president, Norwich University, Northfield, Vt., at 82 years.

Sane Sports Policy

THE committee of college presidents appointed by the American Council on Education to study intercollegiate athletics has made public its views and has asked college and sports officials "to cooperate."

Secondary-school men may be heartened by the fact that the colleges have finally formulated a definite plan of action and made specific suggestions for remedial action. The implication is that the colleges have decided that it was far past time to clean house, and it had to be done soon before others undertook to do it for them. Others, including Congress, have taken a lively interest in the matter. The House Rules Committee has been considering a proposal for a Congressional investigation of sports, including intercollegiate athletics. Still others, secondary-school officials particularly, have become increasingly exasperated as no remedy appeared and no action seemed forthcoming. However, some secondary schools, cooperating with colleges, have studied the matter, especially as the problem affects the secondary school, and recommendations have been made, such as the report prepared by the North Central Association's

subcommittee on athletics that appears on page 18 of this issue.

The college group, headed by President Hannah of Michigan State College, declared that proselyting, subterfuge, and distorted purpose can neutralize the contribution of athletics to the total educational services of an institution. The remedies proposed by the committee to meet the present situation have four chief objectives: (1) to relieve external pressures, (2) to insure institutional control, (3) to suggest general standards of acceptable practice, and (4) to invoke measures of enforcement. Here is a summary of the specific recommendations made:

1. Control of athletics should be held absolutely and completely by the administration. The athletic department should be subject to the same institutional policy and budgetary controls as any other department; all of its members, including coaches, should have the same status and salaries as other faculty members of comparable rank. The athletic board, if there is one, should be advisory to the president, and the majority of its members should be faculty members.

2. Admission standards as announced in official publications should apply to athletes and nonathletes alike.

3. A student, to be eligible for intercollegiate competition, should be enrolled in courses leading to a degree, and should be making normal progress.

4. Participation in intercollegiate competition as a member of a varsity team should not be permitted during a student's first year on a campus.

5. Every institution should increase the number of scholarships and grants-in-aid for students of high academic ability who need help. All aid to students given by alumni and other groups should be administered by the institution. All students holding scholarships should meet the same standards of academic performance, and financial awards should be limited to meeting actual educational expenses.

6. Seasons for football, basketball, and baseball should be clearly defined to eliminate bowl games, postseason tournaments, and inseason off-campus tournaments not under institutional auspices.

7. Since athletics have important educational and recreational values, colleges should offer the opportunity of participation to all students.

8. Institutions should be encouraged to compete with others having similar policies and programs.

Regional and national agencies having a direct interest in athletics are asked to cooperate in the enforcement. Regional accrediting associations have an especially important role to play because they represent the point of view of education as a whole, include secondary schools as well as colleges in their scope, and can apply sanctions.

Summing up, the committee urged that all educators and sports officials work for these recommended principles and practices in their own spheres; for the moral and in-

tellectual truths they champion and the respect of the students and of the public is at stake.

Assistance in Meeting Attacks

"MEETING the Attacks on Education" is the theme of the January, 1952, issue of *Progressive Education*. It contains articles on such topics as: the motives and character of unjustified attacks; the research studies which indicate that the charges against the schools are unfounded; the extent to which the public approves of modern practices in education; and constructive suggestions for anticipating and meeting attacks. As this particular issue should be helpful to schoolmen in meeting these attacks, copies of it can be ordered from the American Education Fellowship, 105 Gregory Hall, University of Illinois, Urbana. The price is 50¢ for a single copy, with reductions for quantity orders.

Grant for Economic Study

THE Committee for Economic Development has announced that it has received a grant of $123,750 from the Fund for Adult Education, an independent organization established by the Ford Foundation. The money will be used to help support the 26 workshops to be held on the campuses of sponsoring colleges and universities this summer. Community groups will raise an additional $300,000 to finance their local projects. The locally controlled workshops will study the structure and operation of the American economy and procedures for improving classroom instruction in economics. Workshop staffs will include competent economists, curriculum specialists, and consultants from business, labor, research organizations, and government.

Public Relations

THE American Association of School Administrators of the NEA has issued a report on the schools and the press. The 24-page booklet, entitled *The Superintendent, the Board, and the Press,* is intended to give administrators a knowledge of the basic rules of dealing with newspapermen and securing effective and fair coverage of the schools. Mutual understanding and cooperation are stressed, as is the newspaperman's need for background material to insure accurate reporting. A series of suggestions for improving interviews is listed in the report along with a check list for news tips, how to prepare a news release, and some joint efforts which are of mutual benefit to the school and the press.

Copies may be secured from the AASA, 1201 Sixteenth St. N.W., Washington 6, D. C. for 25¢ each; discounts on quantity orders.

Polio Pledge

DURING April and May, a "Polio Pledge" will be distributed throughout the schools of the country by The National Foundation for Infantile Paralysis. Each child will be asked to take home a copy of the pledge. It explains briefly to the parent a few basic precautions to take against polio and the scientific

reasons that lie behind them.

Criticism

THE American Council of Learned Societies, on the behalf of the council and the Conference of Secretaries of the Constituent Societies of the ACIS, has issued a critique on certain important features of the report, *Education and National Security,* published jointly by the Educational Policies Commission and the American Council on Education.

The chapter dealing with military manpower is criticized for not discussing directly the value of humanities and social sciences for national security, and for leading the reader to think of deferment first in the terms of the categories most immediately related to military technology such as science, engineering, and medicine.

The final chapter of the report is objected to because the recommendations made in it "neglect considerations vital to national security and indeed accepted in the preceeding chapters." These considerations are: (1) National security and the military establishment are not by any means synonymous. (2) Security is a national problem at all times, and a civilian as well as a military problem. (3) Experience shows that our safety lies in cultivating all fields of inquiry. (4) We must not jeopardize peace, the prime objective of partial mobilization, by commitments appropriate only to total war.

A condensation of another chapter of the report, not mentioned in this critique, appeared in the March issue of THE EDUCATION DIGEST under the title of "The Role of the Schools."

Study Abroad

TEACHERS are invited to study at five of Britain's leading universities this summer, starting July 5. Birmingham, London, Nottingham, Oxford, and St. Andrews are offering courses in economics, literature, Elizabethan drama, education in England, and Britain's position in the modern world. The courses are intended chiefly for graduates, but are open to seniors, with credits transferable. Costs will run from $168 to $200 for board and tuition, plus tourist passages at $170 each way. A small number of grants to cover expenses and a few free trans-Atlantic passages are available. Application should be made to The Institute of International Education, 2 West 45th St., New York 19, N. Y.

New Intelligence Test

MEMORY tests have been subordinated to the solving of original problems in a new series of intelligence tests prepared by a University of Illinois professor of education, Frank H. Finch. There are separate tests for each successive elementary-school year and the whole series covers the age range from six years to adulthood. The first two years of the tests are completely non-verbal, the others, 40 percent verbal with the vocabulary chosen to elim-

inate cultural bias and to make slight demand on skills developed through linguistic training. The tests grew out of a five-year period of experimentation in 65 schools in a number of states. The series is published by the Educational Test Bureau, Minneapolis, Minnesota.

Resolutions Adopted

AN open-door policy between the school and community with frequent collaboration between teachers in education planning was one of the main resolutions adopted at the seventh annual convention of the Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development in Boston recently. Other resolutions called for continued support of the non-segregation policy, cooperation with existing community agencies which provide child care for working mothers and similar services, promotion of educational TV, and the fostering of moral and spiritual values as an integral part of the curriculum.

Business Support Asked

BUSINESS was again urged to support higher education when the Commission on Financing Higher Education asked that trade and industry contribute one-half of 1 percent of their net income before taxes to education. Leaders of industry were told that the choice is between private gifts and a federal subsidy, and that the constant flow of college-educated personnel is a vital necessity to successful business operation.

DATES OF THE MONTH:

April 5-9, Regional Convention, American Association of School Administrators, Boston.

April 6-10, American Association for Health, Physical Education, and Recreation, Los Angeles.

April 15-18, National Catholic Educational Association, Kansas City, Mo.

April 16-19, National Conference on Higher Education, NEA, Chicago.

April 16-19, National Council of Teachers of Mathematics, Des Moines.

April 17-20, Institute for Education by Radio and Television, Columbus.

April 30-May 3, International Council for Exceptional Children, Omaha.

April 30-May 3, American Industrial Arts Association, Chicago.

DATES OF THE COMING MONTHS:

May 2-3, American Council on Education, Chicago.

May 19-21, National Congress of Parents and Teachers, Indianapolis.

June 24-27, American Home Economics Association, Atlantic City, N.J.

June 26-July 1, NEA Department of Elementary-School Principals, Detroit.

June 30, NEA Department of Classroom Teachers, Detroit.

June 30-July 5, National Education Association, Detroit.

New Educational Materials

Education and National Security. Educational Policies Commission and the American Council on Education, Washington 6, D.C.: 1951. Pp. v + 60. $.50.

This joint report is intended to describe the nature of our international obligations and to suggest ways in which education at all levels can contribute to the total national security effort. The moral and physical tasks we face in the world today are defined. The role the schools and colleges should play in fullfilling their responsibilities toward the common good is outlined. Problems of military manpower are discussed and proposed solutions are given consideration.

Practical Applications of Democratic Administration. Clyde M. Campbell, *et al.* New York: Harper & Bros., 1952. Pp. x + 325. $3.00.

This symposium takes the view that the very foundations of our democratic concept of life lie in education. To make the democratic process more effective we must apply more widely the underlying principles of democratic action to the relationship between educational administrators and the community as a whole. The three-part volume presents the general principles of democratic educational leadership, actual examples of how the problem has been met in different communities; and, in the conclusion, seeks to draw together the essentials of an effective program to develop that leadership and to take a realistic look at the future.

Teaching Children in the Middle Grades. Alvina Treut Burrows. Boston: D. C. Heath and Co., 1952. Pp. xvii + 280. $3.75.

It is the purpose of this book to present information which will contribute to a better understanding of the period of middle childhood. Physical and mental capabilities of children between the ages of eight and eleven are discussed, together with the role of the teacher to insure effective learning and guidance. The development of the individual child is dealt with quite extensively, although methods of group study are also given considerable mention.

Citizens Workbook for Evaluating School Buildings. Jack L. Landes and Merle R. Sumption. Dubuque, Iowa: Wm. C. Brown Co., 1951. Pp. 39. $1.50.

This workbook is intended as an aid to the layman in rating a school building with particular reference to the educational program it is expected to house. To help the board member or citizen judge his community's facilities, the basic items of the physical plant and its site, and criterions for evaluating them are listed in simple nontechnical terms. A rating scale for judging safety, soundness, adequateness of the building, and a chart on which to plot these values are included.

Understanding Children's Play. Ruth E. Hartley, Lawrence K. Frank, and Robert M. Goldenson. New York: Columbia University Press, 1952. Pp. xvi + 372. $3.50.

This work is the result of a two-year study made by the authors for the purpose of determining the role of play in fostering healthy personality development. The results of the original study have been utilized in this book, which is intended to help the kindergarten or elementary-school teacher in using play as a tool of psychological evaluation and as a tool of adjustment. Use of clay, blocks, graphic materials, and water play are described.

Self-Expression through Art. Elizabeth Harrison. Peoria, Ill.: Chas. A. Bennett Co., 1951. Pp. xiii + 112. $4.00.

The need for the teaching of art and the philosophy behind that teaching, as well as practical suggestions on methods, are included in this book. Criterions for judging a child's work are given. Projects for the different elementary grades are listed for every season of the year.

Guidance in Elementary Education. Roy DeVerl Willey. New York: Harper and Bros., Pp. xii + 825. $5.00.

Guidance in the elementary grades, according to the author, needs increased emphasis. It is his purpose to introduce the classroom teacher to the common techniques that have been found most useful in actual experience. The psychological factors underlying human growth and development are discussed, together with the mechanics of introducing guidance into the elementary-school curriculum.

Moral and Spiritual Values in Education. William Clayton Bower. Lexington, Ky.: University of Kentucky Press, 1952. Pp. xv + 214. $3.50.

The author, professor emeritus of religious education at the University of Chicago, believes that moral and spiritual values are intrinsic to the learning process. In the classroom and in all school activities situations rich in value potentials occur. Teachers who are trained to recognize these value aspects in learning situations can help young people make these values a part of their lives. One chapter of the book covers the separation of the church and state and how each may fill its own particular function in the spiritual and moral education of our children. Over-all values, instead of religious instruction per se, are stressed throughout the book, as are examples of actual experiences and experiments on which the book is based.

They Went to College. Ernest Havemann and Patricia Salter West. New York: Harcourt, Brace and Co., 1952. Pp. x + 277. $4.00.

This informally written book is the published result of the analysis of the answers to 9064 questionnaires that were received in the Time, Inc. survey of the American college graduate. While the authors do not claim to present the final word on the subject, the results, for instance, do reveal such information as significant trends in the changing fields of study. The material on the earning power of graduates is broken down by grades, background, participation in extracurricular activities, and other criterions. Churchgoing, politics, marital status, the career woman, and the graduate's opinion of his alma mater are also a few of the other topics discussed. Statistical material is clearly presented in the form of graphs.

Other Materials Received:

Elementary Education

Everyday Mathematics. Douglas, Kinney, and Ruble. New York: Henry Holt and Co., 1951. Pp. 504. $2.48.

Secondary Education

Your Art Heritage. Olive L. Riley. New York: McGraw-Hill Book Co., 1952. Pp. 320. $3.96. A text for teaching art in the high school.

Algebra for Problem Solving. Book 1. Freilich, Berman, and Johnson. Boston: Houghton Mifflin Co., 1952. Pp. 568. $2.88.

Solid Geometry. Hart and Schult. Boston: D. C. Heath and Co., 1952. Pp. 198. $2.40.

Your Health and Safety, Third edition. Clemensen and LaPorte. New York: Harcourt, Brace and Co., 1952. Pp. 532. $3.32.

Science. Davis, Burnett, and Gross.

New York: Henry Holt and Co., 1952. Pp. 562. $3.44. A textbook of general science.

General Shop for Everyone. Louis V. Newkirk. Boston: D. C. Heath and Co., 1952. Pp. 261. $3.20. A text for use in the shop.

Story of Nations. Rogers, Adams, and Brown. New York: Henry Holt and Co., 1952. Pp. 730. $4.16. A high-school text.

The United States and World Relations. Lillian T. Mowrer and Howard W. Cummings. New York: McGraw-Hill Book Co., 1952. Pp. 466. $3.48.

Workbook for Better English. Grade 7. Herzberg, Guild, and Hook. Boston: Ginn and Co., 1952. Pp. 172. 88c.

GUIDANCE

Choosing the Right College. Annette Turngren. New York: Harper and Bros., 1952. Pp. 149. $2.50. A guide for the prospective college student.

Living and Planning Your Life. Newsom, Douglas, and Dotson. New York: McGraw-Hill Book Co., 1952. Pp. 470. $3.48. Offers personal and occupational guidance for the high-school student.

Student Councils for Our Times. Joe Smith. New York: Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1951. Pp. 110. $2.00. Some ideas for making student councils effective.

Working Your Way Through College. Kenneth C. Rathbun. Westhampton Station, Richmond, Va.: Cavalier Publishing Co., 1951. Pp. 55. $1.25. A listing of a number of money-making ideas and sources of aid.

Occupations. Walter J. Greenleaf. The Federal Security Agency, 1951. Pp. 193. This basic outline for counselors is available for 45c from the Superintendent of Documents, Washington 25, D.C.

Growing through Play; New Play Experiences for Children. Ruth E. Hartley. New York: Columbia University Press, 1952. Pp. 62 and 66. 75c each. These booklets give examples of the use of play in guidance techniques.

GENERAL

Business and Economic Research. Southern Regional Education Board, 830 West Peachtree St. N.W., Atlanta, Ga., 1951. Pp. 51. 50c. A list of selected federal agency programs of interest to colleges.

Studies in the Psychology of Reading. Morse, Balantine, and Dixon. Ann Arbor, Mich.: University of Michigan Press, 1951. Pp. 188. $2.50 paperbound. A monograph on the study of eye-movement in reading, and the changes in it with age.

A Problem Workbook in Educational Psychology. Glenn W. Durflinger. Dubuque, Iowa: Wm. C. Brown Co., 1951. Pp. 212. $3.50. A list of problems by subject and suggested references for solving them.

AUDIO-VISUALS

Learning Through Seeing. Gaspar Cisneros Barnette. Dubuque, Iowa: Wm. C. Brown Co., 1951. Pp. 145. $3.75. An explanation of the principles and methods of tachistoscope teaching for the teacher and the administrator.

The Bluebook of 16mm Films. Educational Screen, 64 E. Lake St., Chicago 1, Ill. Twenty-seventh edition, 1952. Pp. 172. $1.50. Indexed compilation of over 7000 16mm motion picture titles, with sources. Educational films on almost every subject and grade level appear in this official DAVI publication.

Williamsburg Restored. A 44-minute, 16mm sound and color film available through Colonial Williamsburg, Film Distribution Section, Box 516, Williamsburg, Va. Rental $5.00.

The Secret Service Story. A 17-minute, 16mm sound film of the activities of the Secret Service in combatting counterfeiters and protecting the president. A good part of the film is devoted to the art of recognizing spurious money. Available on free loan through Aetna Insurance Co. representatives or Secret Service regional offices.

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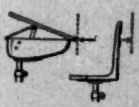

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